DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 315 201 RC 017 257

TITLE Education and the Changing Rural Community: Anticipating the 21st Century. Proceedings of the Joint Annual Conference of the American Council on Rural Special Education (9th) and of the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium (3rd) (Fort Lauderdale, Florida, March 4-12, 1989).

INSTITUTION American Council on Rural Special Education.; National Rural and Small Schools Consortium, Bellingham, WA.

PUB DATE Mar 89

NOTE 865p.; For individual papers, see RC 017 258-307.

PUB TYPE Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)

EDRS PRICE MF06/PC35 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS *Demonstration Programs; Educational Change; Educational Development; Elementary Secondary Education; Higher Education; Improvement Programs; Preschool Education; Rural Areas; *Rural Education; Rural Schools; *Small Schools; *Special Education; Teacher Education

ABSTRACT

This proceedings contains the conference program, a list of presenters, and profiles of keynote speakers. Program descriptions are provided for the 10 1989 Exemplary Rural and Small Schools Program award winners chosen by the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium, and for the 7 1989 Exemplary Rural Special Education Program award winners chosen by the American Council on Rural Special Education. This document also contains 74 individual papers. Topics include education and training of special education teachers and rural teachers; transition of handicapped students from school to community; cooperative approaches to meeting rural educational needs with scarce resources, such as networking, technical assistance from education centers or universities, interdistrict sharing, and school-community programs; strategies for improving parent participation; special education teaching methods; mainstreaming in rural schools; improving science instruction in small and rural schools; teacher recruitment and orientation in rural areas; preschool programs for handicapped children and for rural children; and issues related to AIDS and school policy. (SV)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED315201

1989 ACRES/NRSSC SYMPOSIUM

EDUCATION AND THE CHANGING RURAL COMMUNITY:

Anticipating the 21st Century

March 4 - 12, 1989
Fort Lauderdale, Florida

Rural Special Education:
March 4 - 8

Ninth Annual Conference of ACRES
American Council on
Rural Special Education

* Over 100 concurrent sessions
* Teacher Institute
* Parent Institute

Rural and Small Schools:
March 8 - 12

Third Annual Conference of NRSSC
National Rural and Small Schools
Consortium

* Over 100 concurrent sessions
* Teacher Institute
* Administrator Institute

RC017257

BEST COPY AVAILABLE 2

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Bridget Karns

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it

Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality

Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy

Table of Contents

Program

Presenters

Profiles of Keynote Speakers

Program Descriptions

1989 NRSSC Exemplary Rural and Small Schools Program Award Winners

St. Stanislaus School, Jefferson City, Missouri
Franklin Northeast Supervisory Union, Richford, Vermont
Arnettsville Happy School, Morgantown, West Virginia
Pine Hill School, Pine Hill, New Mexico
Green Sea Floyds/Daisey Elementary School, Green Sea, So. Carolina
Western Oregon State College, Monmouth, Oregon
St. Pauls City Schools, St. Pauls, North Carolina
Todd County School District, Mission, South Dakota
Alvin C. York Institute, Jamestown, Tennessee
To'Hajilee Community School, Canoncito, New Mexico

1989 ACRES Exemplary Rural Special Education Program Award Winners

University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah
West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia
Sharon Elementary School, Sharon Center, Ohio
North Dakota State Dept. of Public Instruction, Bismarck, No. Dakota
Minnesota Valley Cooperative Center, Granite Falls, Minnesota
Pilasco-Ross Special Educ. Reg. Resource Center, Portsmouth, Ohio
Dayton School District #2, Dayton, Washington

Papers

Peggy L. Anderson
Henry B. Reiff
Audrey D. McCray
Project AIME: Multicultural Training for Special Educators

David B. Barnes
Cheryle Barnes
Dare To Dream: A Non-Categorical Service Delivery System

John Beard
Project SCORE: Supervised Career Opportunities in a Rural Environment

David Bell
Georgine Steinmiller
Anticipating the 21st Century: Avoiding the Teacher Shortage

Michael Bodensteiner
Meeting the Prevention Needs of Rural School Districts*

Kay Sather Bull
Five Year Teacher Education Programs: Potential Impact on Rural Schools

Kay Sather Bull
Marta Garrett
Dimensions of Being "At Risk": Children and Youth in Rural Environments

Peter Burpee
Brenda Wilson
Cheryl Aumndsen
Electronic Mail in Distance Education: A Canadian Perspective

Colleen A. Capper
Students with Severe Disabilities in the General Education Program: A Conceptual and Practical Framework for Rural School Administrators

Edward W. Chance
Developing Administrative Vision

Carroll B. Coakley
Education and Placement Program for At-Risk Rural Adults

Charles C. Coker
James Costello
The Community Transition Center (CTC) Model

Lee Coose
HIV/AIDS Students in the Public Schools: Policy Development and Program Implementation

Ace Cossairt
The Effects of a Principal's "Supervision Package" on Teacher and Student Behaviors and a Historical Perspective of the Principal's Role as a Change Agent

W. N. (Skeet) Creekmore III
Deborah Johnson
Patricia Knesel
John B. Nash
Dependence to Independence: Vocational Success through Ecological Congruence

W. N. (Skeet) Creekmore III
Deborah Johnson
Patricia Knesel
John B. Nash
Digital-First Approach to Teaching Temporal Concepts To Preschool Exceptional Children

Judy M. Dacus
Nora Hutto
Improving Science Education in Rural Elementary Schools: A New Approach

Patricia C. Davis
Implementing Comprehensive Parent Services in Small Rural School Districts

Winnie Dunn
Paula Hughes
Managing Occupational Therapy in Rural Education: O. T. Student Perceptions of Adaptive Classroom Behaviors

Carol S. Eagen
Amy E. Albers
Communications Exercise

Nathan Farber
The Early Childhood Preventive Curriculum (ECPC)

Terry A. Feick
Donna K. Myers
Frances R. Tye
Literacy--The Challenge of the Twenty-First Century: A Rural Perspective

Terry A. Feick
Donna K. Myers
Frances R. Tye
Literacy--The Challenge of the Twenty-First Century: A Rural Community Adopts a Literature Based Language Arts Program

David M. Finn
Pam Tazioli
Cleaning Out the Wheelbarrow: Planning Appropriate Assessments for Transition

James B. Gray, Jr.
John Wolinski
Terry Hammerbacher
Rural Teaching Effectiveness Network

James B. Gray, Jr.
Glen Hammerbacher
Kathy Simon
Teacher Use of Word Processing in Rural Special Education

John H. Halcrow
Rural Teacher Education for the 21st Century: A Minnesota Outreach Model

William Hallett
Debra Stintzi
"Bridging the Gap" School to Work

Arline Halper
Joyce Beam
Rural Transition Program Specialist: Training the Rural Specialist

Kathryn Wolff Heller
A Model for Providing Technical Assistance for Educators of Students with Severe Handicaps in Rural Areas

Aimee Howley
Take Two: Lessons in Program Revision

Craig B. Howley
Pamela Coe
Robert Nash
Wandel Strange
Grassroots Development: Applying ERIC Resources in a Small, Rural School District

Bonnie G. Joyce
Ann Cranston-Gingras
John S. Platt
A Program for Preparing Teachers To Serve Handicapped Migrant Students in Rural Areas

Judith A. Kahn
Georgianna Larson
Meeting Needs with Scarce Resources: Community Network Building for Low-Incidence Conditions

Wilbur F. Kalinke
Preventing Dropout Runaways

Merle B. Karnes
Karen F. Beauchamp
Rebecca J. Cook
Spectrum Early Childhood Program: Serving Children in Rural Champaign County

Phyllis Kelly
A Model System for State Education Agency Approval for Special Education Paraprofessionals: Implications for Rural Special Education

Maxine Wallender Kilcrease
"Ready, Set, Go!" A Model Community Resource Plan for Rural Schools

Dennis R. Knapczyk
Design and Supervision of Field-Based Practicum Experiences in Rural Communities

Imogene Land
Kay S. Bull
The Adaptive Approach System: A Trainer of Trainers' Manual

June Canty Lemke
Supporting Beginning Teachers in Rural and Small Schools"

Kathy Lewis
Tennessee's National Model for Rural Education

Richard P. Lipka
Herbert A. Gailey
"Effective Schools" Policy Training for Rural School Boards

Robert J. Loyd
Richard T. Roessler
Donn E. Brolin
Implementing and Evaluating the Life-Centered Career Education Curriculum

Barbara Luetke-Stahlman
Communication Games

Barbara Luetke-Stahlman
Three Goals for Teachers: Asking Comprehensible Questions of Language Delayed Students

Jonathan C. McIntire
David B. Barnes
Public Law 94-142: A Time To Re-Examine

Walter G. McIntire
Scott F. Marion
Academic Achievement in America's Small Schools: Data from High School and Beyond

Dean K. McIntosh
Gail I. Raymond
Rural Mildly Handicapped Students in the Least Restrictive Environment: Implications for Identification and Intervention

John A. McLaughlin
Wemme E. Walls
Cyndi B. Roberts
Delivery of Training and Technical Assistance to Rural Local Educational Agencies: The Special Education Technical Assistance Centers at Virginia Tech

Carolyn Maddy-Bernstein
Sheri Kallembach
Technical Assistance for Special Populations Program (TASPP) of the National Center for Research in Vocational Education

David May
Networking Science Teaching in Small and Rural Schools

Lynda Mazzola
Heather Griffiths
Kathryn Markovchick
Mark Fasold
Maine Cued Speech Camp: A Success Story for Parents, Teachers, and Children in a Rural State

Richard Miske
Inservicing Techniques for Low Incidence Populations in Rural Settings: Educational Partnerships for Hearing Impaired Students

Jeniece E. Nelson
Please Don't Ignore the Adult in Me! Using Human Resource Development (HRD) Training Strategies To Enhance Transfer of Inservice Learning

Derek R. Newbury
The British 1981 Education Act and Its Implementation in a Rural County in Wales

Gloria M. Palma
Pyramidal Curricula for Severely Disabled Individuals: An Overview

Joyce M. Peters
Torry Piazza Templeman
Integrating Special Needs Children into Regular Preschool Settings: Selecting Instructional Formats To Implement IEP Goals

Jan Porterfeld
Alaska Consortium for Transition Services (ACTS). Rural Transition Planning for Secondary Students with Severe Disabilities: The Alaska Experience

J. Preston Prather
Robert L. Hartshorn
A Model for Science Education Reform in Rural Schools: An Inservice Program for Local Team Leadership Development

JoAnne W. Putnam
Kathryn F. Markovchick
Cooperative Learning and Cooperative Staff Development To Promote Social Integration

Suzanne Ripley
A Parent's Guide to Accessing Parent Groups, Community Services, and to Keeping Records

Richard F. Rodriguez
The Effect of Sociocultural Factors on the Achievement of Minority Children

Charles L. Salzberg
Sarah Rule
Jennifer Chen
Julie Fodor-Davis
Robert Morgan
The Application of Video Disc Technology in Preservice Teacher Training

Nanci A. Scheetz
Mainstreaming the Hearing-Impaired Student in the College Classroom: A Comprehensive Approach

Louis Schwartz
Rhea Schwartz
Individualizing Instruction for In-Service Teachers at the Outreach Centers of Two Universities

Rhea Schwartz
A Teacher Designed Rural-Regional Symposium on Gifted Education

Sandra Silver
The Northern Coalition Teacher Center

Sandra Silver
Inservice Education for Special Education Teachers in Rural Areas

Jo Anna Spruill
Libby G. Cohen
Linda Hawkins
Cyrene Slegona
The Transition of Secondary Age Students in Maine from High School to the Community

Robert Steinmiller
Georgine Steinmiller
Raouf Halaby
Gifted and Talented Students: The Show Must Go On

Steven G. Street
Audry Holm
Is Parent and Educator Collaboration a Reality in Rural Special Education?

Wemme E. Walls
Educational Placement of HIV-Infected Students in the Public Schools: Policy Considerations for Rural Educators

Michael P. Wolfe
Nicholas Stupiansky
Barbara McConville
Rural-Based Mentor/Intern Teacher Project: Building Bridges Not Walls

WELCOME to the 1989 Ninth Annual Conference of the American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES) and the Third Annual Conference of the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium (NRSSC). We wish you a productive, enlightening, and enjoyable meeting!

CONTENTS

Conference Cosponsors 1

Conference Planning Committee and Staff 2

Abstracts and Complete Papers 2

Conference-at-a-Glance 3

1989 ACRES/NRSSC Symposium Featured Speakers 6

AIDS Education Events 7

1989 ACRES Task Forces/Leaders 8

1989 ACRES Scholarship Winners 9

ACRES Exemplary Rural Special Education Program Awards . . 10

NRSSC Exemplary Rural and Small School Program Awards . . . 12

Saturday Institute Sessions 14

Sunday Institute Sessions 16

Monday Conference Sessions and Activities 19

Tuesday Conference Sessions and Activities 27

Wednesday Conference Sessions and Activities 37

Thursday Conference Sessions and Activities 45

Friday Conference Sessions and Activities 52

Saturday Institute Sessions 55

Sunday Institute Sessions 55

The American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES) and the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium (NRSSC) extend sincere thanks to all of the 1989 conference cosponsors and planning committee members for their contributions of staff and other resources. NRSSC appreciates the collaborative efforts of these organizations and their commitment to rural and small school education. We also wish to thank the staff of the South Atlantic Regional Resource Center, Florida Atlantic University, and the Western Washington University School of Education.

A final thanks is also extended to the professionals who generously shared their time and expertise as presenters, speakers, and panelists.

Conference Sponsors, Cosponsors, and Endorsers

Sponsored by

American Council on Rural Special Education
National Rural and Small Schools Consortium
Florida Atlantic University
National Education Association

Cosponsored by

American Association of Community and Junior Colleges--
Small/Rural College Commission
American Association of State Colleges and Universities
American Occupational Therapy Association
American School Counselor Association
American Speech-Language-Hearing Association
National Association of Elementary School Principals
National Association of School Nurses
National Middle School Association

Endorsed by

American Art Therapy Association
American Association for Adult and Continuing Education
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
American Physical Therapy Association
Center for Community Transportation - Rural America
Council of Chief State School Officers
Council for Educational Development and Research
ERIC Clearinghouse for Rural Education and Small Schools
National Association of School Psychologists
National Association of Secondary School Principals
National Center for Research in Vocational Education
National Congress of American Indians
National Council on Vocational Education
National Rural Health Association
National Rural Social Work Caucus
National School Volunteer Program

CONFERENCE PLANNING COMMITTEE

We would like to thank the following people, who contributed to the success of the First Combined Annual ACRES/NRSSC Symposium:

Timothy Kelly, General Symposium Chair
Kay S. Bull, ACRES Program Chair
William Peter, NRSSC Program Chair
Isa Polansky, Local Arrangements Chair
Marie Dinon, Volunteer Coordinator

CONFERENCE STAFF

Doris Helge, Director
Larry Marrs, Dean

Cindy Burman-Woods
Conference Coordinator

Jill Cox
John Dalquest
Pamela Helberg
Linda Hines
Deborah Knight
Teri Lipinski
John McBroom
Kelly Ryan
Nina Sailors

Abstracts and Complete Papers

The abstracts and complete presentation papers for conference sessions are available for review at the Registration/Information Center. Reviewing the session papers can assist you in selecting conference presentations most suited to your areas of interest and expertise.

CONFERENCE-AT-A-GLANCE

ACRES Conference (through Wednesday noon)

Saturday, March 4

Conference Registration
7:30 am - 5:00 pm

Teacher Institute Sessions
8:30 - 10:00 am

Parent Institute Sessions
8:30 - 10:00 am

Break
10:00 - 10:20 am

Parent and Teacher Institutes (continued)
10:20 am - Noon

Lunch (on your own)
Noon - 1:30 pm

Parent and Teacher Institutes (continued)
1:30 - 3:00 pm

Break
3:00 - 3:20 pm

Parent and Teacher Institutes (continued)
3:20 - 5:00 pm

Parent/Teacher Social
Hospitality/Cash Bar
at Poolside
5:00 - 6:00 pm

Sunday, March 5

Conference Registration
7:30 am - 5:00 pm

Teacher Institute Sessions
8:30 - 10:00 am

Parent Institute Sessions
8:30 - 10:00 am

Break
10:00 - 10:20 am

Parent and Teacher Institutes (continued)
10:20 am - Noon

Lunch (on your own)
Noon - 1:30 pm

Teacher Institute Sessions
1:30 - 3:00 pm

Break
3:00 - 3:20 pm

Teacher Institute Sessions
3:20 - 5:00 pm

Parent Institute: Planning Meeting for ACRES Parent Consortium
3:30 - 5.00 pm

AIDS Education Videos
4:00 - 5:00 pm

ACRES Session for First-Time Conference Participants
5:00 - 5:45 pm

Hospitality/Cash Bar
at Poolside
5:00 - 8:00 pm

RSEQ Editorial Board Meeting
5:45 - 7:00 pm

Monday, March 6

Conference Registration
7:30 am - 5:30 pm

Plenary Session
8:30 - 9:50 am

Break
9:50 - 10:10 am

Conference Sessions
10:10 - 11:00 am and
11:10 am - Noon

Awards Luncheon
(Complimentary)
Noon - 1:30 pm

Conference Sessions
1:30 - 2:20 pm and
2:30 - 3:20 pm

Break
3:20 - 3:40 pm

Conference Sessions
3:40 - 4:30 pm

Hospitality/Cash Bar
at Poolside
4:30 - 7:30 pm

Task Force Leaders' Meeting
4:40 - 5:30 pm

ACRES continues. . .

CONFERENCE-AT-A-GLANCE
(continued)

ACRES Conference (through Wednesday noon)
NRSSC Conference (begins Wednesday morning)

Tuesday, March 7

Fun Run (optional)
7:00 - 7:45 am

Conference Registration
7:30 am - 5:00 pm

Plenary Session
8:30 - 9:50 am

Break
9:50 - 10:10 am

Conference Sessions
10:10 - 11:00 am and
11:10 am - Noon

ACRES Advisory Board Meeting
Noon - 1:30 pm

Lunch (on your own)
Noon - 1:30 pm

Conference Sessions
1:30 - 2:20 pm and
2:30 - 3:20 pm

Break
3:20 - 3:40 pm

Conference Sessions
3:40 - 4:30 pm

Task Force Business Meetings
4:40 - 6:00 pm

Paddlewheel Queen Cruise, Entertainment, and and Buffet Dinner (Complimentary)
6:00 - 9:00 pm

Wednesday, March 8

Conference Registration
7:30 am - 5:30 pm

Continental Breakfast (Complimentary)
7:30 - 9:50 am

Combined ACRES/NRSSC Plenary Session
8:30 - 9:50 am

Break
9:50 - 10:10 am

Conference Sessions
10:10 - 11:00 am and
11:10 am - Noon

Job-Alike Luncheon (NRSSC) (Complimentary)
Noon - 1:30 pm

Conference Sessions
1:30 - 2:20 pm and
2:30 - 3:20 pm

AIDS Education Forum
1:30 - 3:20 pm

Break
3:20 - 3:40 pm

Conference Sessions
3:40 - 4:30 pm

NRSSC Advisory Board Meeting
4:30 - 6:00 pm

Hospitality/Cash Bar at Poolside
4:30 - 7:00 pm

Thursday, March 9

Conference Registration
7:30 am 5:30 pm

Plenary Session
8:30 - 9:50 am

Break
9:50 - 10:10 am

Conference Sessions
10:10 - 11:00 am and
11:10 am - Noon

AIDS Education Panel
10:10 am - Noon

Awards Luncheon (Complimentary)
Noon - 1:30 pm

Workshop: Techniques for Enhancing Student Self-Esteem
1:30 - 4:30 pm

Conference Sessions
1:30 - 2:20 pm and
2:30 - 3:20 pm

Break
3:20 - 3:40 pm

Conference Sessions
3:40 - 4:30 pm

Hospitality/Cash Bar at Poolside
4:30 - 6:30 pm

JRSS Editorial Board Meeting
4:40 - 6:00 pm

NRSSC continues. . .

CONFERENCE-AT-A-GLANCE
(continued)

NRSSC Conference (continued from Wednesday morning)

Friday, March 10

Conference Registration
7:30 am - 5:00 pm

Plenary Session
8:30 - 9:50 am

Break
9:50 - 10:10 am

Conference Sessions
10:10 - 11:00 am and
11:10 am - Noon

AIDS Trainer-of-Trainers Seminar
10:10 am - 4:00 pm

NEA Teacher Institute
1:00 - 5:00 pm
(coffee break provided)

Hospitality/Cash Bar at Poolside
5:00 - 7:00 pm

Saturday, March 11

Conference Registration
7:30 am - Noon

NEA Teacher Institue
8:00 am - 5:00 pm
(coffee breaks provided; lunch on your own)

NAESP Administrator Institute
9:00 am - 3:00 pm
(coffee breaks provided; lunch on your own)

Sunday, March 12

NEA Teacher Institute
8:00 am - Noon
(coffee break provided)

1989 ACRES/NRSSC SYMPOSIUM
FEATURED SPEAKERS

ACRES Plenary Session, Monday, 8:30 am

Tom Hunter, a singer, songwriter, and educator from Bellingham, Washington, is involved in integrating participatory art into schools, our lives, and this conference!

General Education Initiative Panel, Tuesday, 8:30 am

Norman Howe, of the United States Department of Education's Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, will lead a panel discussion addressing the various issues surrounding the General Education Initiative. Panel members are: Bernard Hannon, *Director of Special Education, Cooperative School Services, Rensselaer, Indiana;* Colleen Capper, *Assistant Professor, Department of Special Education and People Services, University of Wisconsin, Madison;* and Audray Holm, *parent of a special education student, Willits, California.*

Combined ACRES/NRSSC Plenary Session, Wednesday, 8:30 am

Arnold Hillman is presently serving as the executive director of the 3,000-square-mile Riverview Intermediate Unit -- a regional service to seventeen school districts in Northwestern Pennsylvania.

NRSSC Plenary Session, Thursday, 8:30 am

Joe Schneider is the Executive Director of the Council for Educational Development and Research (CEDaR), a Washington, D.C.-based national trade association representing research universities and nonprofit institutions. He is actively involved in national legislative events.

NRSSC Plenary Session, Friday, 8:30 am

Eliot Wigginton has taught school in Rabun County, Georgia, since 1966. *Foxfire Magazine*, which he started with his ninth- and tenth-graders in 1966, is still produced quarterly by students at Rabun County High School. Two of his students will participate in his presentations.

AIDS Education Events

Concurrent sessions regarding AIDS education and showings of AIDS education videos will also occur during the conference.

Wednesday, March 8

1:30 - 3:20 pm **AIDS Forum**

Yvonne Stone, rural Maryland teacher; Doran Davis-Churvir., Education Development Center; Missy Fleming, American Medical Association; Pat Nichols, interstate training project; Joel M. Levy, Young Adult Institute; and Vivian Haines, National Association of School Nurses.

The forum will provide sharing of resources, expertise, strategies, and collaborative efforts for implementing AIDS education in rural schools.

3:40 - 4:30 pm **ACRES/NRSSC At-Risk Task Force Meeting**

Thursday, March 9

10:10 am - Noon **AIDS Education Panel - Issues and Effective Strategies**

Beth Broyles, Centers for Disease Control (CDC); Yvonne Stone, rural Maryland teacher and panel moderator; Pat Nichols, interstate training project; Kay Emerson Roy, health education consultant; Alys Kennedy, private practice counselor; and Vivian Haines, National Association of School Nurses.

1:30 - 4:30 pm **Workshop on Techniques for Enhancing Student Self-Esteem as a Preventive Measure.**

Alys Kennedy, private practice counselor.

Friday, March 10

10:10 am - 4:00 pm **AIDS Trainer-of-Trainers Seminar**

Beth Broyles, Centers for Disease Control; Marie Dinon; Joel M. Levy, Young Adult Institute; Yvonne Stone, rural Maryland teacher; Alan Oliver, New York State Department of Health; Alys Kennedy, private practice counselor regarding student self-esteem development.

This seminar is designed to disseminate field-tested approaches to AIDS education.

1989 NATIONAL ACRES TASK FORCE LEADERS

Early Childhood
Paulette Mills, University of Washington, Seattle

Personnel Recruitment and Retention
Peter Biaggio, Nebraska Department of Education, Lincoln
Janice Schnorr, University of Arizona, Flagstaff
Ann Fritz, Flint Hills Special Education Co-op, Emporia, Kansas

Cross-Cultural
Linda Reetz, University of South Dakota, Vermillion

Health and Related Services
Sandra Stuart-Siddall, University of California, Chico

Local Education Agency
Bernard Hannon, Cooperative School Services, Rensselaer, Indiana
Robert Jenkins, Western Line School District, Avon, Mississippi

Parent Consortium
Audray Holm, Parent of a Special Education Student, Willits, California
Suzanne Ripley, NICHCY, McLean, Virginia
Joseph Roberts, San Jose State University, California

Research and Policy Development
Stan Knox, St. Cloud State University, St. Cloud, Minnesota
Sandra Silver, Paul Bunyan Elementary, Bemidji, Minnesota
Terry Berkeley, Gallaudet University, Washington, D.C.

Preservice/Inservice (Staff Development)
June Lemke, University of Redlands, California
Dvenna Duncan, University of Portland, Oregon
Barbara Reeves, Ohio University, Athens
Debra Veit, University of Alaska, Anchorage

Transition
Barbara Elliott, Education Service Unit #9, Hastings, Nebraska

Low-Incidence
Colleen Capper, University of Wisconsin, Madison

Special Physical Education and Recreation
Stephen Dempsey, University of Nevada, Las Vegas

At-Risk
Kay Bull, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater
Pat Burns, Elementary Teacher, Chandler, Arizona

Technology
D.J. Olcott, University of Missouri, Columbia

1989 ACRES Scholarship Winners

Dorothy Yocom
Oregon State University/Western State College, Corvallis, Oregon

Ms. Yocum is completing a doctoral program in special education. She was reared in Salem, Oregon, and is preparing herself for a leadership role in the training of special education teachers. Dorothy taught special education in a rural setting and understands the need for implementing positive, constructive change in rural schools.

Kaye Hansen
University of South Dakota, Vermillion, South Dakota

Ms. Hansen's positive view of rural education is summed up in one statement, "Big things come out of small packages." Ms. Hansen would like to help bring the world nto a more clear and positive focus through her dedication to teaching. Her goals are to complete her B.A. degree in special education and to teach in a rural setting.

JoAnn Jackson
Eastern New Mexico University, Roswell, New Mexico

Ms. Jackson has lived in a rural area for the past 14 years and has worked as a parent volunteer and speech therapist. She is working toward a Masters degree in communication disorders, focusing on speech/language pathology.

1989 ACRES Exemplary Rural Special Education Program Award Winners

Research and Evaluation

Educational Telecommunications Project (ETP), Department of Education, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah

The Educational Telecommunications Project (ETP) is a video-technical consortium dedicated to developing, producing, and disseminating quality state-of-the-art educational telecommunication courses and other instructional products.

Contacts: Marshall Welch, Executive Director, ETP
Harry Bluhm, Acting Dean, Department of Education, University of Utah

Preservice/Inservice Training

Speech-Language Pathology Rural Project, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia

This program is designed to address the issues of recruitment and retention of speech and language therapists in rural areas.

Contacts: Karen Haines, Clinical Assistant Professor, West Virginia University
Cheryl Prichard, Assistant Professor, West Virginia University

Services in the Least Restrictive Environment

Multi-Handicapped Primary Unit, Sharon Elementary School, Sharon Center, Ohio

This program is designed to meet the individual needs, as well as the general needs of students with multiple handicaps. Some of the goals are to promote positive self-esteem in each child, pragmatic approaches of educating students with special needs, and opportunities for multiple and severely profoundly retarded (MSPR) children to experience socialization, normalization, and integration with age-appropriate peers.

Contacts: Bruce Hulme, Director of Pupil Personnel, Sharon Elementary School
J. Bradley Garner, Director of Severe Handicapped Programs
Medina City Schools, Medina, Ohio

Infant and Early Childhood Intervention

North Dakota Early Childhood Tracking System, State Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota

The purpose of this system is to provide a coordinated system for identification of infants and young children who are at-risk for developmental delays. This includes monitoring of growth and development, referral to appropriate services, and follow up.

Contacts: Mary Beth Wilson, Project Coordinator
Brenda Oas, Assistant Director of Special Education

Vocational Training and Transition

Secondary Vocational/Post-Secondary Vocational Transition Project, Minnesota Valley Cooperative Center, Granite Falls, Minnesota

The goals of this project are to strengthen community interagency involvement, maintain community-school work experience partnerships, and establish a Vocational Library.

Contact: Bob Vaadeland, Director of Special Education

Interagency Collaboration

Cooperative Special Education Effort - Pike, Lawrence, Scioto, & Ross Counties, Pilasco-Ross Special Education Regional Resource Center, Portsmouth, Ohio

The goals of this program are to provide cost-effective, high quality, public educational experiences for all low-incidence handicapped children who reside in the four counties and 40 school districts served by the program. These services are cooperatively provided.

Contacts: Gary Dutey, Director, Pilasco-Ross Special Education Regional Resource Center
Wayne White, Superintendent, Dawson-Bryant Local School District Coal Grove, Ohio

Gifted

EXPRO, Dayton School District #2, Dayton, Washington

The purpose of the EXPRO Program is to provide opportunities for education of the individual student (grades K - 12) according to his/her academic and creative abilities, and in accordance with his/her needs and interests.

Contacts: Jean Lane, Program Coordinator/Teacher
Richard Jones, Chairman, Dayton School Board of Directors

1989 NRSSC Exemplary Rural and Small School Program Award Winners

Rural and Small Private Schools
St. Stanislaus School, Jefferson City, Missouri

The goals of this program are to develop and implement a computer-assisted gifted student tutor program for students in grades one through eight.

Contacts: Sister Carlene Reck, Superintendent of Schools
Diocese of Jefferson City, Missouri
Lorene Gnaedinger, Elementary Principal, St. Stanislaus School

Preservice/Inservice Training
Teacher Associate Program (TAP), Franklin Northeast Supervisory Union, Richford, Vermont

The purpose of the TAP program is to help acclimate, orient, and establish both veteran and new teachers within the culture of the local school district.

Contacts: Raymond J. McNulty, Superintendent of Schools
Judith Ouellette, Chapter 1 Teacher

Family/Community/School Partnerships
Arnettsville Happy School; Morgantown, West Virginia

The Arnettsville Happy School seeks to provide information and emotional support to parents, and a nursery school experience for young children in the area.

Contacts: Jenifer Snider, Director of Education, Monongalia County Schools
Mariwynne Strong, Principal, Arnettsville School

Educational Technology
Pine Hill School's Excellence in Writing Program, Pine Hill, New Mexico

The goal of the Excellence in Writing Program is to improve the quality of Navajo students' writing in fluency, clarity, correctness, and maturity as scored on a holistic writing evaluation. It combines word processing technology on microcomputers with writing process instruction to form a methodology of writing instruction that will be successful with Native Americans.

Contacts: Anna Mae Pino, Superintendent of Schools
Sena Fitzpatrick, Chapter 1 Teacher/Program Coordinator

Elementary Curriculum and Instruction
Super Student - Big Brother/Big Sister Program - "Winning the Game Called School," Green Sea Floyds Elementary School, Green Sea, South Carolina

"Super Student - Winning the Game Called School" is a study skills program that builds self-esteem/self-concept, and is designed to make students the winners in schools. This program is enhanced and supported with business-education partnerships.

Contacts: Shirley Huggins, Elementary Principal
John N. Chanaca, Jr., Elementary Counselor

Research and Evaluation
Rural Special Education Consultant Low-Incidence Teacher Training Program, Western Oregon State College, Monmouth, Oregon

The purpose of this program is to increase the number of special education teachers who are effective and willing to work in rural/remote areas.

Contacts: Bonnie J. Young, Ph.D., Program Director
Cheron J. Mayhall, Director, COPE Project, Salem, Oregon

Secondary Curriculum and Instruction

"The Way-Off Broadway Delicatessen," St. Pauls City Schools, St. Pauls, North Carolina

The primary goal of this unique project is to provide real life experiences. Rather than a textbook activity, students learn by doing. They are taking responsibility to assess, plan, and develop a concept and to see it through to reality. The end results benefit the students intellectually and economically while helping the financial growth of the community.

Contacts: Thomas Paquin, Superintendent of Schools
Donnie E. Weeks, Assistant Superintendent

Cross-Cultural Services

Integration of Indian Studies, Todd County School District, Mission, South Dakota

The purpose of this program is to establish Indian Studies as an integral and meaningful complement to the regular instructional program and to provide all students with knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of American Indian culture and heritage.

Contacts: Lydia Whirlwind Soldier, Coordinator of Indian Studies
Larry Thacker, Superintendent of Schools

Adult Education and Community Action

Community Education Program, Alvin C. York Institute, Jamestown, Tennessee

Some of the goals of this program are to help people establish self-confidence, involve parents who were dropouts in an education program, encourage support of parents enrolled in adult education to be involved with the educational program of their children, and create a positive attitude toward learning.

Contacts: Margaret Phelps, Ph.D., Director of Rural Education
Tennessee Tech University, Cookeville, Tennessee
Kathy Lewis, Director of Rural Education
Alvin C. York Institute, Jamestown, Tennessee

At-Risk Students

STARS (Success at To'Hajiilee with At-Risk Students), To'Hajiilee Community School, Canoncito, New Mexico

The principal goals of this program are to raise the awareness of the total community and faculty to the needs of youth "at risk" and provide alternatives for youth whose impoverished life styles seem to foster behavior problems.

Contacts: Daniel W. Fox, Principal
Harriette Barber, Nurse Practitioner, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque

Saturday, March 4

7:30 am - 5:00 pm — Registration/Information
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

8:30 am - 10:00 am — Teacher Institute Sessions

Parent Services Project: Improving and Expanding Services to Parents in Small, Rural School Districts
Patricia C. Davis, Kirk Headley, Leon County Schools, Tallahassee, Florida
The Parent Services Project is a 3-year multicounty effort to improve and expand services to parents of exceptional students in small, rural school districts.
Tower 360

Community Transition Center: "Rural Application"
Charles C. Coker, James J. Costello, University of Wisconsin-Stout, Menomonie
This institute will focus on the development and implementation of a Rural-Based Community Transition Center. Critical program elements, problems, and solutions will be discussed.
Tower 361

Implementing and Evaluating the Life-Centered Career Education Curriculum
Donn E. Brolin, Richard T. Roessler, University of Missouri, Columbia
Participants will be introduced to recently developed Life-Centered Career Education materials. Application of LCCE assessment and instructional techniques is stressed.
Commodore

Adapting Materials to Meet the Needs of All Children
Imogene Land, Kay S. Bull, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater
A system for adapting materials will be presented. Participants will learn adaptation techniques (or packaging materials), systems for using materials, development of environmental climates for individualization, and management/supervision strategies. Participants will create individualized materials for their own classrooms.
Captains

8:30 am - 10:00 am — **Parent Institute Sessions**

Parent and Educator Collaboration, a Reality in Rural Special Education
Steven G. Street, Program Consultant - L.H. Sonoma County SELPA, Windsor, California; Audray Holm, Parent Specialist - California Deaf/Blind Services and Northern California Coalition for Parent Training and Instruction, Willits, California
This workshop will address the need for greater collaboration between educators and parents. Tools to enhance collaboration will be demonstrated. Participants will design a Collaboration Action Plan.
Salon IV

10:00 am - 10:20 am — Break
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

10:20 am - Noon — **Parent and Teacher Institute Sessions**
(continued from 8:30 am)

Noon - 1:30 pm — Lunch (on your own)

Saturday, March 4 (continued)

1:30 - 3:00 pm **Teacher Institute Sessions**

Preventing Dropout Runaways (or Youth in Crisis)
Wilbur R. Kalinke, Marathon County Special Education, Wausau, Wisconsin
Interviews on the streets from coast to coast with surviving dropout runaway youth reveal common characteristics and recommendations for prevention.
Tower 360

Creative Thinking
Kathy L. Goff, University of Georgia, Athens
Get "hands-on" experiences in creative thinking. Experience the works of E. Paul Torrance and the basics of creativity and classroom applications.
Commodore

Adapting Materials to Meet the Needs of All Children
Imogene Land, Kay S. Bull, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater
A system for adapting materials will be presented. Participants will learn adaptation techniques (for packaging materials), systems for using materials, development of environmental climates for individualization, and management/supervision strategies. Participants will create individualized materials for their own classrooms.
Captains

1:30 - 3:00 pm **Parent Institute Sessions**

Model Parent Services in Florida
Susan Duwa, Executive Director, Parent-to-Parent of Florida; Linda Pitts, Director of Training, Parent Education Network (PEN) of Florida; Sally Wade, Executive Director, Human Assistance Network Directory Services (HANDS) of Florida
This workshop will explore three statewide parent organizations that provide services to families with special needs children. Each organization utilizes parents as the providers of the service.
Salon IV

3:00 - 3:20 pm Break

3:20 - 5:00 pm **Teacher and Parent Institute Sessions**
(continued from 8:30 am)

5:00 - 6:00 pm **Parent/Teacher Social**
Hospitality/Cash Bar at Poolside

Sunday, March 5

7:30 am - 5:00 pm — Registration/Information
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

8:30 - 10:00 am — **Teacher Institute Sessions**

Easy Ways to Use Songs for Teaching and Learning
Tom Hunter, entertainer/educator, Bellingham, Washington

This workshop will present practical strategies for listening more closely to the feelings, insights, and pace of children through the use of songs. This session will teach participants how to listen to the way songs carry powerful positive images for building confidence and self-esteem. It will also explore how songs can prompt classroom discussions and projects.

Captains

Ready, Set, Go! A Model Community Resource Plan for Rural Schools
Maxine M. Kilcrease, Western Oregon State College, Monmouth

A community resource plan to involve parents, students, staff, and community members will be presented. Data on student achievement gains and staff satisfaction will be shared.

Commodore

8:30 - 10:00 am — **Parent Institute Session**

Accessing Services for Children with Disabilities: The Rural Family Perspective - Panel Discussion
Suzanne Ripley, Acting Deputy Director, National Information Center for Children and Youth with Handicaps (NICHCY), Washington, D.C.; Margaret Burley, Ohio Coalition for the Education of Handicapped Children, Worthington, Ohio; Kathy Odle, Association for the Care of Children's Health and Mississippi Governor's Office, New Sipe, Mississippi; Debbie Cavelier, United Cerebral Palsy of the Palm Beaches, Florida; Jenine Kern, United Cerebral Palsy of Broward County, Florida

This session will discuss the process of accessing medical services, respite care, and school and community resources

Salon IV

10:00 - 10:20 am — Break

10:20 am - Noon — **Teacher and Parent Institute Sessions**
(continued from 8:30 am)

Noon - 1:30 pm — Lunch (on your own)

1:30 - 3:00 pm — **Teacher Institute Sessions**

Sunday, March 5 (continued)

Enhancing Transition Through Self-Esteem
Joseph Roberts, San Jose State University, California; Lorentina Carroll, Lodi Unified School District, Stockton, California

Over 50 classroom strategies to enhance positive self-esteem will be presented in a "hands-on" workshop approach. Parents and teachers will benefit.

Salon IV

1:30 - 3:00 pm **Parent Institute Session**

Building Self-Esteem for Children with Handicaps and Their Parents
Joseph Roberts, San Jose State University, California; Lorentina Carroll, teacher and parent of handicapped student, Lodi Unified School District, Stockton, California

Over 50 classroom strategies to enhance positive self-esteem will be presented in a "hands-on" workshop approach. Parents and teachers will benefit.

Salon IV

3:00 - 3:20 pm Break

3:20 - 5:00 pm **Teacher Institute Sessions**
(continued from 1:30 pm)

3:30 - 5:00 pm **Parent Institute:**
Planning Meeting for ACRES Parent Consortium
Suzanne Ripley, Acting Deputy Director, National Clearinghouse for Children and Youth with Handicaps (NICHCY), Washington, D.C.; Audray Holm, Parent Specialist--California Deaf/Blind Services and Northern California Coalition for Parent Training and Instruction, Willits, California

An open forum for parents and professionals to explore the needs and concerns of rural families with handicapped children.

Tower 360

4:00 - 5:00 pm **AIDS Education Videos** - *Tower 360*
"Everyone Can Avoid AIDS"
"AIDS-Wise, No Lies"
"I Have AIDS--A Teenager's Story"

5:00 - 5:45 pm **ACRES: Session for First-Time Conference Participants**
Doris Helge, Director, ACRES, Bellingham, Washington; Joseph Roberts, San Jose State University, California; Kay Bull, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater

First-time conference participants will be welcomed and introduced to ACRES goals and activities. This will be an excellent opportunity to meet ACRES members--old and new.

Tower 361

Sunday, March 5 (continued)

5:00 - 8:00 pm	Hospitality/Cash Bar at Poolside
5:45 - 7:00 pm	[illegible]Q Editorial Board Meeting *Boardroom*

Monday, March 6

7:30 am - 5:30 pm — Registration/Information
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

8:30 - 9:50 am — **Plenary Session**
Welcome and Introduction of Cosponsors and Conference Planners - Doris Helge
Introduction - Kay S. Bull
Future Rural Educators: Nurturing by Song
Tom Hunter, a singer, songwriter, and educator from Bellingham, Washington, is involved in integrating participatory art into schools, our lives, and this conference!
Salon I & II

9:50 - 10:10 am — Break
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

10:10 - 11:00 am — Concurrent Sessions

Team Teaching: Bridging the Gap in the Continuum
Mary Ann Brenzovich, St. Mary's County Public Schools, Leonardtown, Maryland
The presentation highlights a review of research, as well as the results of a local study of the effectiveness of Team Teaching Programs (pairing regular and special educators) for the disabled. Survey evaluation data are also reported.
Commodore

Training Special Educators to Serve Handicapped Migrant Students
Bonnie Joyce, Ann Cranston-Gingras, John S. Platt, University of South Florida, Tampa
This presentation will include an overview of the needs of migrant students with handicaps and a description of a teacher training program designed to meet their needs.
Captains

Project VITRA: Serving Rural Students with Visual Handicaps
Toni Heinze, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb
Project VITRA trains teachers to work with rural visually handicapped students and their classroom teachers via specialized coursework, practica, and innovative projects. Find out how!
Tower 361

Gifted and Talented Students: The Show Must Go On
Robert C. Steinmiller, Raouf Halaby, Quachita Baptist University; Georgine Steinmiller, Henderson State University, Arkadelphia, Arkansas
This presentation will elaborate on the steps to guide gifted and talented students through the process of creating and performing their own one-act plays based on historical research.
Tower 470

New Preschool Screening Instrument for Use in Identifying At-Risk Children in Rural Areas
Marion B. Duncan, Loreta Holder-Brown, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa
Identification of at-risk preschool children has become an issue since the passage of P.L. 99-457. This session is designed to assist professionals in the selection of appropriate screening instruments for this population.
Tower 471

Collaborative Approach to Inservice Training
Kathleen Powers, University of Southern Maine, Portland; Susan Kimmerly, Vermont Department of Education, Montpelier; David Roberts, Department of Education, Fredericton, New Brunswick; Ruth Kimmons, Atlantic Province, Special Education Authority, Halifax, Nova Scotia

This session will describe a collaborative staff development process taking place in seven states and provinces. Tools will be available to help participants replicate this model.

Salon III

Rural Special Education Research: Knowing our Past, Anticipating our Future
Colleen Capper, University of Wisconsin, Madison

Utilizing stimulating graphic displays, participants will be updated on rural special education research, then will engage in a provocative exchange of ideas on future research and its role in social science.

Tower 360

Transition of Secondary-Age Students in Maine from High School to the Community
Libby G. Cohen, Jo Anna Spruill, Linda Hawkins, Cyrene Siegora, University of South Maine, Gorham

Three separate research studies were conducted that examined the transition process in rural schools in Maine. The findings from these studies portray how school personnel and students are managing the transition period.

Tower 461

Impact of the Attorney's Fee Bill on Missouri's Rural Schools
Jerry D. Wright, Northwest Missouri State University, Maryville; Mark VanZant, Missouri Department of Secondary & Elementary Education, Jefferson City; John R. Morgan, Clear Lake High School, Clear Lake, Iowa

A review of all due process hearings in Missouri from 1976 to 1988 and the impact of P.L. 99-372 on rural schools. Reports a survey of school and parent perceptions. Proposes changes to increase due process in rural areas.

Tower 371

11:10 am - Noon Concurrent Sessions

Digital-First Approach to Teaching Temporal Concepts to Preschool Exceptional Children
W.N. "Skeet" Creekmore, Pat Knesel, Debbie Johnson, John Nash, Northeastern Louisiana University, Monroe

Presentation introduces a new learning theory-based approach of teaching time-telling to exceptional children. A data-based presentation, it defends using a digital-first approach to teaching temporal concepts to preschool exceptional children.

Commodore

Supervision of Field-Based Practicum Experiences in Rural Training Sites
Dennis R. Knapczyk, Indiana University, Bloomington

Session will provide guidelines for developing and supervising field-based practicum experiences in rural communities. Emphasis will be placed on organizing experiences related to integration of mildly handicapped into regular education. Samples of project descriptions, analyses of training activities, and supervision guidelines will be provided.

Captains

Rural Transition Planning for Secondary Students with Severe Disabilities - The Alaska Experience
Jan Porterfield, Special Education Service Agency, Anchorage, Alaska

The Alaska Consortium for Transition Services is developing a process of secondary transition planning for students with severe handicaps living in rural Alaska.

Tower 361

Literacy - The Challenge of the Twenty-First Century: A Rural Community Adopts a Literature-Based Language Arts Program
Terry A. Feick, Donna Myers, Frances R. Tye, Washington Court House City Schools, Washington Court House, Ohio

A literature-based program that effectively teaches children from a rural background to think, read, write, listen, and speak will be presented. Involved teachers will present examples of children's products.

Tower 371

British 1981 Education Act and its Implementation in a Rural County
Derek R. Newbury, POWYS Local Education Authority, Llandrindod Wells, United Kingdom

An outline of the main features of major British special education legislation, with an account of responses to this by parents, teachers, schools, and administrators.

Tower 461

Low-Incidence Task Force
Colleen Capper, University of Wisconsin, Madison

Past activities will be detailed. Discussion leading to the foundation of future goals will take place.

Salon IV

Children with AIDS in the Public Schools
Lee Coose, Gocio Elementary School, Sarasota, Florida; Bruce Hinson, Florida Diagnostic/Learning Resource System, Sarasota

The primary focus of this presentation relates to the development of a school board policy which provides an education for HIV/AIDS students in the public schools.

Tower 360

Monday, March 6 (continued)

Successful State Model of Parent/Professional Partnership in Special Education
Nona M. Flynn, Parent Advocacy Training Center, Alexandria, Virginia; Nancy Thabet, Mary Patricia Farrell, West Virginia Department of Education, Charleston; Ralph K. Price, Jr., Pendleton County Board of Education, Franklin, West Virginia; Sylvia Schrader, Ruth Mooney, Parent Resource Center, Franklin, West Virginia

A statewide parent resource center model program is analyzed from the perspective of state and local administrators, and of a parent and educator team delivering services to parents in their rural communities.

Tower 471

Noon - 1:30 pm **ACRES National Rural Special Education Exemplary Program Awards Luncheon**

Larry Marrs, presiding
Kay Bull and Timothy Kelly, presenting awards

Winners:

Research and Evaluation
Marshall Welch, Harry Bluhm
Educational Telecommunications Project (ETP)

Preservice/Inservice Training
Karen Haines, Cheryl Prichard
Speech-Language Pathology Rural Project

Services in the Least Restrictive Environment
Bruce Hulme, J. Bradley Garner
Multi-Handicapped Primary Unit

Infant and Early Childhood Intervention
Mary Beth Wilson, Brenda Oas
North Dakota Early Childhood Tracking System

Vocational Training and Transition
Bob Baadeland
Secondary Vocational/Post-Secondary Vocational Transition Project

Interagency Collaboration
Gary Dutey, Wayne White
Cooperative Special Education Effort

Gifted
Jean Lane, Richard Jones
EXPRO, Dayton School District #2

Salon I & II

1:30 - 2:20 pm Concurrent Sessions

Preservice Model: Training for the Use of Metacognitive and Learning Strategies in Regular and Special Education
James E. Calder, Deborah L. Smith, Phillip B. Waldrop, Arkansas State University, State University

Presentation to include the integration of the Cognitive Curriculum for Young Children and the Strategies Intervention Approach (including field experiences) into pre-existing teacher preparation programs.

Captains

Supervised Career Opportunities in a Rural Environment - Project SCORE
John M. Beard, Humboldt Unified School District, Dewey, Arizona

Focus on the development and establishment of community-based work sites for special needs students; related instruction/skill enhancement and curriculum design strategies.

Commodore

Occupational Therapy Practice in Urban Versus Rural School Systems
Terry Crowe, Elizabeth Kanny, University of Washington, Seattle

Results of a survey completed by 252 (85% return rate) occupational therapists employed in school systems will be presented. Therapists employed in rural school systems will be compared to those employed in urban school systems. Survey dealt with jobs, problems encountered, educational needs, caseloads, etc.

Tower 461

Mainstreaming the Hearing Impaired College Student: A Comprehensive Program
Nanci A. Scheetz, North Florida Junior College, Madison, Florida

Focuses on those elements necessary to establish and conduct a successful mainstreamed program for postsecondary hearing impaired students. Explores vocational, academic, and independent living skills in a junior college setting.

Tower 470

Health & Related Services Task Force: How to Keep a Task Force Health and Alive
Sandra Stuart-Siddall, California State University, Chico

This presentation will describe the 1938-89 task force activities and solicit 1989-90 activities. Suggestions will be offered on how to network and communicate with colleagues who are spread geographically across the U.S.A.

Tower 471

ACRES Exemplary Program 1: Research and Evaluation
Educational Telecommunication (ETC), Department of Education, University of Utah, Salt Lake City
Dr. Marshall Welch, Executive Director; Dr. Harry Bluhm, Acting Dean

The Educational Telecommunications Project (ETC) is a video-technical consortium dedicated to developing, producing, and disseminating quality state-of-the-art educational telecommunication courses and other instructional products.

Salon III

Project AIME: Multicultural Training for Special Educators
Peggy L. Anderson, Henry B. Reiff, Audrey D. McCray, William Glenn Morgan, Southern Louisiana University, Hammond

This presentation will describe a demonstration project that focuses on revising university special education training to reflect a more multicultural approach to teacher preparation. Focus is on unit and infusion approaches to program revision.

Tower 360

Inservice Education for Special Education Teachers in Rural Areas
Sandra Silver, Paul Bunyan Elementary School, Bemidji, Minnesota

An inservice education model that is readily adaptable to the needs of the isolated rural special education teacher will be described. Assumptions underlying inservice and the difficulties found in rural special education inservice will be explored.

Salon IV

Vermont Parent/Professional Partnerships
Kathleen A. Sollace, Betty Milizia, State Department of Education, Montpelier, Vermont
The presentation will describe Vermont's efforts in parent/professional collaboration and how these efforts promote better education for our children.
Tower 361

Early Childhood Preventive Curriculum
Nathan Farber, Early Childhood Preventive Curriculum, Miami, Florida
A first grade diagnostic-prescriptive teacher management systems approach to preventing learning problems will be demonstrated. The focus is on prereading perceptual skills. The model is nationally validated, innovative, and effective for at-risk children.
Tower 371

2:30 - 3:20 pm Concurrent Sessions

Special Education Teacher Competencies: Review of the Literature
Stephen D. Dempsey, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
The purpose of the presentation is to describe recent studies related to teacher competencies for special populations. Relative validity of these competencies will be examined. Implications for rural special education will also be addressed.
Captains

Meeting Needs with Scarce Resources: Community Network Building for Low-Incidence Conditions
Judith A. Kahn, Georgianna Larson, PATHFINDER, Minneapolis, Minnesota
PATHFINDER personnel will present their community network model for children with chronic health conditions and their families living in rural communities.
Tower 461

Communication Games for Deaf Children
Barbara Luetke-Stahlman, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb
Four basic communication games to entice deaf individuals to try new forms of language will be explained. Materials are inexpensive and can facilitate a range of use, content, and form skills. Focus is on rural teachers working individually with students having communication disorders.
Tower 360

ACRES National Early Childhood Task Force Report
Paulette Mills, University of Washington, Seattle, Task Force Leader
Facilitator: Gail Raymond, University of South Carolina, Columbia
Past activities will be detailed. New activities will be developed and goals will be set for the next year.
Salon IV

Crackerbarrel Session: Strategies for Serving At-Risk Students
Doris Helge, ACRES, Bellingham, Washington
This session will generate discussion of strategies to serve handicapped students who are "at risk" (e.g., abused, chemically dependent, minority, suicidal, poor, delinquent, sexually active, etc.).
Tower 470

ACRES Exemplary Program 2: Preservice/Inservice
Speech-Language Pathology Rural Project, West Virginia University, Morgantown
Dr. Karen Haines, Clinical Assistant Professor; Dr. Cheryl Prichard, Assistant Professor; Dr. Dennis Ruscello, Chair/Professor, Department of Speech Pathology and Audiology

This program is designed to address the issues of recruitment and retention of SLPs in rural areas.

Salon III

The Parent Education Network
Linda H. Pitts, Janet Jacoby, Parent Education Network, Tampa, Florida

PEN provides information and training to parents of handicapped children to help them build partnerships with professionals and understand the school system. A description of those services will be provided.

Tower 471

Eastern Shore Word Processing Evaluation Project
James B. Gray, Glen Hammerbacker, University of Maryland, Eastern Shore, Princess Anne; Cathy Simon, Worchester County Schools, Newark, Maryland

A review of a three-year project to evaluate the impact of word processing on the writing skills of handicapped students.

Tower 361

Model for Delivery of Training and Technical Assistance to Rural Local Education Agencies
John A. McLaughlin, Wemme E. Walls, Cyndi B. Roberts, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg

This session will present a service delivery model for providing training/technical assistance to school professionals serving special needs students in rural and/or geographically isolated areas.

Tower 371

Public Law 94-142: A Time to Re-Examine
Jonathan C. McIntire, Vermont Achievement Center, Rutland; David B. Bames, Bennington-Rutland Supervisory Union, Manchester Center, Vermont

The purpose of this presentation is to discuss the major points in service delivery systems that must be reexamined to improve services for children with special needs. Specific focus on loopholes, problems, and what should be done.

Commodore

3:20 - 3:40 pm — Break
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

3:40 - 4:30 pm — Concurrent sessions

Managing Occupational Therapy in Rural Education
Winnie W. Dunn, Debra Cook, University of Kansas Medical Center, Kansas City

Rural schools present unique challenges for occupational therapists. This session will present strategies for developing criteria for service provision, networking, and educational consultation.

Tower 461

Personnel Recruitment and Retention Task Force: State Agency Issues
Pete Blaggio, Nebraska Department of Education, Lincoln

State Education Issues Sharing Session - This session allows personnel to share concerns and propose solutions to current issues facing state education agencies. Personnel development, surrogate parent procedures, federal child count, funding, rule/regulation development, federal on-site visitations, state monitoring of local school districts, and due process are some of the areas to be discussed.

Tower 470

Minnesota's Changing Iron Range Community: Teacher Education for the 21st Century
John H. Halcrow, Bemidji State University, Minnesota

This session will present an outreach distance learning program for the training of elementary teachers at the baccalaureate level. This program contains a special education component.

Tower 360

Model for Providing Technical Assistance in Rural Areas
Kathryn W. Heller, Georgia State University, Atlanta

A project which provides training to teachers of children with severe mental handicaps is discussed, as well as the model design and administrative concerns for implementation.

Tower 361

Comparison of Early Childhood Special Education Competencies in Rural and Urban Settings in Six States
Martha J. Cook, Larry Johnson, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa; Jennifer Kilgo, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond

Competencies of supervisors of Early Childhood Special Education Programs in rural and urban settings in Alabama, Alaska, Illinois, Hawaii, Washington, and Virginia are compared. Results of a national survey on 30 competencies will be presented.

Tower 371

4:30 - 7:30 pm — Hospitality/Cash Bar at Poolside

4:40 - 5:30 pm — Task Force Leaders Meeting
Boardroom

Tuesday, March 7

7:00 - 7:45 am — Fun Run (optional)

Enjoy and early run or walk with our Fun Run leaders, Pete Biaggio and Colleen Capper. Participants will meet by the poolside. Walkers are encouraged to join in the activity.

7:30 am - 5:00 pm — Registration/Information
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

8:30 - 9:50 am — **Plenary Session** - *Salon I & II*
Introduction, Doris Helge

Issues and Answers Regarding the General Education Initiative

Norman Howe, of the United States Department of Education's Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, will lead a panel discussion addressing various issues surrounding the General Education Initiative. Panel members are: Bernard Hannon, Director of Special Education, Cooperative School Services, Rensselaer, Indiana; Colleen Capper, Assistant Professor, Department of Special Education and People Services, University of Wisconsin, Madison; and Audray Holm, parent of a special education student, Willits, California.

9:50 - 10:10 am — Break
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

10:10 - 11:00 am — Concurrent Sessions

Model System for State Education Agency Approval for Special Education Paraprofessionals: Implications for Rural Special Education
Phyllis M. Kelly, Kansas State Department of Education, Topeka

The purpose of this session is to give an overview of a model system for state approval of special education paraprofessionals and the implications for rural special education. Extensive handouts on implementing a paraprofessional system are provided.
Commodore

Rural Transition: Planning for A.C.C.E.S.S.
Mary Ann Brenzovich, St. Mary's County Public Schools, Leonardtown, Maryland

The presentation highlights the results of a rural county's efforts to provide effective transitional services for the disabled. Focus is on planning, collaboration, linkage, and evaluation within a system's approach.
Tower 461

Training the Rural Transition Program Specialist
Joyce Beam, Maryland State Department of Education, Baltimore; Arline Halper, George Washington University, Washington D.C.

This presentation will describe a training program which addresses the need for developing teams of transition specialists in rural areas.
Tower 470

Scarce as Hens' Teeth: Recruiting and Retaining Therapists in Rural Areas
Barbara Chandler, American Occupational Therapy Association; Jody Delehanty, American Physical Therapy Association; Vicki Deal, American Speech-Language-Hearing Association

This session will focus on recruitment and retention of professionals in rural areas. Presenters will also discuss the activities of their associations as they relate to services in rural areas.

Tower 470

Best Practices in Teaching the Learning Disabled
Gil Guerin, San Jose State University, California

This presentation will examine "best practices" in teaching including: key lesson elements, questioning formats, guided practice, transitions, and cooperative learning.

Captains

ACRES Exemplary Program 3: Services in the Least Restrictive Environment
Multihandicapped Primary Unit, Sharon Elementary School, Sharon Center, Ohio
Dr. Bruce Hulme, Director of Pupil Personnel, Sharon Elementary; Mr. J. Bradley Garner, Director of Severe Handicapped Programs, Medina City Schools, Medina, Ohio

This program is designed to meet the individual needs, as well as the general needs of students with multiple handicaps. Some of the goals are to promote positive self-esteem in each child, pragmatic approaches to educating the students with special needs, and opportunities for the multiple and severely/profoundly retarded (MSPR) children to experience socialization, normalization, and integration with age-appropriate peers.

Salon III

Interactive Television for Rural Educators: Does it Deliver?
M. Winston (Winn) Egan, Iva Dene McCleary, Kathleen Robins, University of Utah, Salt Lake City

This presentation provides an in-depth look at the effectiveness of interactive television in delivering preservice education to prospective special educators in rural/remote communities. Data reported from a four-year study.

Tower 360

Improving Question Use in Group or Individual Instruction with Hearing-Impaired Students
Barbara Luetke-Stahlman, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb

This presentation will provide empirical data as a basis for three practical considerations when working with hearing-impaired students: 1) types of questions asked; 2) effective questions prompts; and 3) task analyzing cognitively challenging questions.

Tower 361

Support for Rural Families of Hospitalized Infants: The Parents' Perspective
Linda L. Flynn, Eastern Illinois University, Charleston

A study of the support system available to rural parents of hospitalized infants with special needs will be presented. Results of in-depth interviews will be shared along with conclusions and recommendations for appropriate services.

Tower 371

Update on OSERS Funding and Support for Training of Rural Special Educators: OSERS Priorities and Regulations Including an Update on Congressional Reauthorization
Norman Howe, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C.

Norm Howe, Director or Personnel Preparation at OSERS, will explain the Department's priorities for the next funding cycle, current legislation pending, and what is happening in Washington, D.C.

Salon IV

Effect of Sociocultural Factors on the Academic Achievement of Elementary Resource Room Minority Group Children
Richard F. Rodriguez, Western New Mexico University, Silver City

A research study was conducted to investigate the effect of sociocultural factors on the academic achievement of Mexican-American children identified as learning disabled and assigned part-time to a Resource Room setting.

Tower 471

11:10 am - Noon Concurrent Sessions

Cleaning Out the Wheelbarrow: Planning Appropriate Assessments for Transition
David M. Finn, University of Alabama, Birmingham; Pamela R. Tazioli, University of Washington, Seattle

This session highlights assessment issues commonly occurring during transition periods for young children. Field-tested procedures for utilizing your assessment tools will be shared.

Captains

Collaborative Consultation in Teacher Training: Rural Early Childhood Special Education Case Study
Ruth V. Burgess, Edna Herron, Jo Robertson, Dale Range, James Layton, Southwest Missouri State University, Springfield

Using a multidisciplinary approach, this session will present a case study of an in-field, competency-based training program funded by a Mellon grant and Southwest Missouri State University.

Tower 371

Maine Cued Speech Camp: Success Story for Parents, Teachers, and Children in a Rural State
Lynda J. Mazzola, Mark Fasold, Cued Speech Association of Maine; Kathryn Markovchick, University of Maine, Farmington; Heather Griffiths, Maine Cued Speech Camp, Gardiner

This presentation will focus on the purpose, funding, and implementation of a successful, well-established resource for children with hearing impairments and their families.

Tower 360

Preservice/Inservice Task Force: Survey Report
June Lemke, University of Redlands, California

Task force members will present the results of a survey of teacher credential agencies in which states require special education teachers to hold a regular education credential and the impact that this has on rural special education.

Salon IV

ACRES Exemplary Program 4: Infant and Early Childhood
North Dakota Early Childhood Tracking System, State Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck
Mary Beth Wilson, Project Coordinator; Brenda Oas, Assistant Director of Special Education
The purpose of this system is to provide a coordinated system for identification of infants and young children at-risk for developmental delays, which includes monitoring of growth and development, referral to appropriate services, and follow-up.
Salon III

Consultation Skills: An Essential Competency for Teachers of Hearing-Impaired Students Who Work in Rural Settings
John L. Luckner, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb
The purpose of this presentation is to provide an overview of collaborative consultation for hearing impaired students, and to delineate some principles and techniques to facilitate the implementation of this method of service delivery.
Tower 471

Preparing Secondary Students for the Future: Community-Based Inservice Model
Gary L. Glasenapp, Western Oregon State College, Monmouth
An overview of the community-based inservice model, a comprehensive model incorporating best practices in the areas of community-based vocational and inservice training.
Tower 361

"Are You Doin' What You Say You're Doin'? or Did You Leave Somethin' Out?"
Terry R. Berkeley, Gallaudet University, Washington, D.C.
This presentation will focus on the practical advantages of using process evaluation as a means of providing accountability and moving toward the enhancement of special education and other educational programs.
Tower 461

Teacher-Designed Rural-Regional Symposium on Gifted Education
Rhea Schwartz, Florida A & M University, Tallahassee
"All you ever wanted to ask about curriculum for the gifted"--rural-regional symposium developed and implemented by teachers in an off-campus university course.
Commodore

Scarce as Hens' Teeth: Recruiting and Retaining Therpists in Rural Areas
Barbara Chandler, Jody Delehanty, Vicki Deal

10:10 am session continued....*Tower 470*

Noon - 1:30 pm — ACRES Advisory Board Meeting
Windows on the Green

Noon - 1:30 pm — Lunch (on your own)

1:30 - 2:20 pm Concurrent Sessions

Rural Special Education Teachers as Consultants: Strategies, Practices, and Training Procedures
Linda P. Thurston, Kansas State University, Manhattan; Ilene Kimsey, Rural Special Education Project, Manhattan

This presentation will discuss the role of the special educator as a consultant based on experiences of over 100 rural Kansas teachers. Topics included will be communicating successfully, understanding educational change in the rural setting, and enhancing effective interaction with parents.

Captains

Using Field-Based Personnel to Deliver College Coursework to Teachers in Rural Areas
Barbara L. Ludlow, James Artesani, West Virginia University, Morgantown

This session describes a model project designed to prepare field-based trainers to delivery instruction via prepackaged courses to offer certification programs to rural teachers.

Tower 471

Please Don't Ignore the Adult in Me! Using Human Resource Development (HRD) Training Strategies to Enhance Transfer of Inservice Learning
Jeniece E. Nelson, Pennsylvania State University, University Park

The session will present a review of training strategies which enhance transfer of training. The suggested strategies are based on a review of literature and survey of SPH and TMH teachers throughout rural Kentucky.

Tower 461

Individualizing Instruction for Inservice Teachers at the Outreach Centers of Two Universities
Louis Schwartz, Florida State University, Tallahassee; Rhea Schwartz, Florida A & M University, Tallahassee

A "mom and pop" demonstration of individualized instruction in rural outreach centers of two urban universities. Focus will be on individualized instructional strategies modeled by the presenters.

Tower 470

Personnel Recruitment and Retention Task Force
Pete Biaggio, Nebraska Department of Education, Lincoln

Past accomplishments of the task force will be detailed. Goals will be set for the next year. All interested persons should attend.

Tower 361

ACRES Exemplary Program 5: Vocational Training and Transition
Secondary Vocational/Post-Secondary Vocational Transition Project, Minnesota Valley Cooperative Center, Granite Falls
Mr. Bob Vaadeland, Director of Special Education

The goals of this project are to strengthen community interagency involvement, maintain community/school work experience partnerships, and establish a Vocational Laboratory.

Salon III

Tuesday, March 7 (continued)

At-Risk Task Force: Defining the Dimensions of "At-Risk"
Kay S. Bull, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater

This presentation examines the dimensions of "at-risk" in terms of things that happen to children (commission and omission), things that develop (defects, disease), things that are existing conditions at birth (Down's syndrome), and things that children do to themselves (commission and omission) which place them physically, psychologically, or educationally "at-risk."

Tower 360

Take Two: Lessons in Program Revision
Aimee A. Howley, University of Charleston, West Virginia

This case study shows how one rural district used a program evaluation process to refine its secondary program for gifted and talented students. Emphasis is on process evaluation.

Tower 371

Model for Personnel Preparation in Rural Areas: Preparing for Continuation after the Grant
Iva Dene McCleary, Kathleen Robins, M. Winston (Winn) Egan, University of Utah, Salt Lake City

A model is presented that incorporates clinical faculty, technology, and departmental structure for the continuation of personnel preparation in rural areas without external funding.

Commodore

2:30 - 3:20 pm Concurrent Sessions

Adaptive Approach System
Imogene Land, Kay S. Bull, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater

Become a trainer of materials adapted for children at all levels. All supplies for a workshop in adapting materials for elementary/secondary level are presented. Examples range from academically gifted to handicapped.

Tower 360

Competencies for Administrators/Supervisors of Early Childhood Special Education Programs: Survey of Rural and Urban Programs in Illinois
Karen D.F. Beauchamp, Rebecca J. Cook, University of Illinois, Champaign

This session provides results of a statewide survey of early childhood special education providers regarding their perceptions of supervisory competencies identified by administrators and practitioners in rural and urban Illinois.

Captains

Dare to Dream: A Non-Categorical Service Delivery Model
David Barnes, Bennington-Rutland Supervisory Union, Manchester, Vermont; Cheryl Barnes, Manchester Elementary School, Manchester, Vermont

The presenters plan to discuss the non-categorical system they developed and have utilized for over ten years. Components of the program and personnel roles will be discussed.

Commodore

Research/Policy/Evaluation Task Force
Sandra Silver, Paul Bunyan Elementary School, Bemidji, Minnesota; Terry Berkeley, Gallaudet University, Washington, D.C.; Stan Knox, St. Cloud State University, St. Cloud, Minnesota

This presentation will describe the work of the task force and set goals for the coming year.

Tower 470

ACRES Exemplary Program 6: Interagency Collaboration
Cooperative Special Education Effort - Pike, Lawrence, Scioto, & Ross Counties, Pilasco-Ross Special Education Regional Resource Center, Portsmouth, Ohio
Dr. Gary Dutey, Director; Mr. Wayne White, Superintendent, Dawson-Bryant Local School District, Coal Grove, Ohio

The goals of this program are to provide cost-effective, high quality, public educational experiences for all low-incidence handicapped children who reside in the four counties and 40 school districts served by the program, and to provide these services cooperatively.

Salon III

Worker-Workskills Matching Through Critical Volunteer Assessment in Rural Settings
Patricia L. Knesel, W. N. "Skeet" Creekmore, Debbie Johnson, John Nash, Northern Louisiana University, Monroe

This presentation introduces notions of applied vocational assessment, ecological congruence, and concentric transitioning from school to vocational success utilizing exciting new skills-matching technology appropriate to rural settings.

Tower 361

Training Rural Special Educators for Peer Supervision of Teaching
Jean C. Faieta, Barbara L. Ludlow, Jeffrey Miller, West Virginia University, Morgantown

The design, implementation, and evaluation of a federally-funded training program to prepare special educators to supervise peer teachers in rural classrooms will be discussed.

Tower 371

Discussions of OSERS' Newly Published Review Criteria and Submission of Applications
Norman Howe, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C.

How to and not to write a grant. Participants will examine and evaluate a personnel preparation grant, under the direction of Norman Howe. Good and bad points will be analyzed and explained. Grant proposal evaluation procedures will be reviewed.

Salon IV

Preparing Administrators and Supervisors of Early Childhood Education Programs for Rural Settings
Rebecca J. Cook, Colonel Wolfe School, Champaign, Illinois; Merle B. Karnes, Karen D.F. Beauchamp, University of Illinois, Champaign

This session provides information on a university model for training administrators/supervisors of early childhood special education programs for rural settings.

Tower 461

Integrating Special Needs Children into Regular Preschool Settings: Selecting Instructional Formats to Implement I.P.P. Goals
Joyce M. Peters, Torry Templeman, Western Oregon State College, Monmouth

Presenters will detail a rural-based integrated preschool model in which a matrix process is used to select optimal instructional formats to implement IPP objectives.

Tower 471

3:20 - 3:40 pm — Break
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

3:40 - 4:30 pm — Concurrent Sessions

Spectrum Early Childhood Program: Serving Children in Rural Illinois
Merle B. Karnes, Karen D.F. Beauchamp, University of Illinois, Champaign; Rebecca J. Cook, Colonel Wolfe School, Champaign, Illinois

Presenters will discuss how rural special education cooperatives can develop an integrated program serving handicapped, "at-risk," and community children ages three to five.

Tower 461

Gifted Preschoolers are Identified: Now a How-To Program for Them
Roberta R. Daniels, Arkansas State University, State University

Curriculum options for gifted preschoolers in the areas of music, math, reading, science, art, creative dramatics, problem-solving, etc., are presented.

Tower 470

Research/Evaluation/Policy Studies Task Force: Research Crackerbarrell for Doctoral Students
Terry Berkeley, Gallaudet University, Washington, D.C.; Sandra Silver, Paul Bunyan Elementary School, Bemidji, Minnesota

Task force members will be available to brainstorm and share ideas and expertise with doctoral students. The purpose is to support research and exchange ideas. Collaborators welcome, possible dissertation topics given free!

Commodore

ACRES Exemplary Program 7: Gifted
EXPRO, Dayton School District #2, Dayton, Washington
Mrs. Jean Lane, Program Coordinator/Teacher; Richard Jones, Chairman, Dayton School Board of Directors

The purpose of the EXPRO Program is to provide opportunities for education of the individual student (grades K-12) according to his/her academic and creative abilities, and in accordance with his/her needs and interests.

Tower 471

Bridging the Gap--School to Work
William Hallett, Debbie Stintzi, Polk County Schools, Lake Wales, Florida

This session will provide participants with an overview of a comprehensive transition program and how it handles such areas as: transportation, credits, assessment, job coaches, parent funding, role of placement personnel, and public relations.

Tower 360

Rural Survival Is Who You Know—Not What You Know
Marilyn K. Johnson, Debra Veit, Margaret Lowe, University of Alaska, Anchorage

In rural areas, we lack resources, are required to teach outside our expertise, struggle with community involvement, and feel "all alone." Our students may come from a culture different than ours. Approaches to these problems will be discussed.

Tower 371

Project NETWORK: A Four-Course Teleseries in Early Childhood Education
Penny Royce, Nevada Department of Human Resources, Sparks; Rhoda Cummings, University of Nevada, Reno

This presentation will describe the application of state-of-the-art telecommunications technology to provide university-credit classes to early childhood special education inservice and preservice students living in remote areas.

Tower 361

4:40 - 6:00 pm Task Force Meetings

Early Childhood
Paulette Mills, Leader - Gail Raymond, Facilitating
Captains
Personnel Recruitment and Retention
Pete Biaggio, Janice Schnorr, Ann Fritz, Leaders
Commodore
Cross-Cultural
Linda Reetz, Leader
Tower 360
Health and Related Services
Sandra Stuart-Siddall, Leader
Tower 361
Parent Consortium
Audray Holm, Suzanne Ripley, Leaders
Joseph Roberts, Facilitator
Tower 371
Research and Policy Development
Stan Knox, Sandra Silver, Terry Berkeley, Leaders
Tower 461
Preservice/Inservice (Staff Development)
June Lemke, Dvenna Duncan, Barbara Reeves, Debra Veit, Leaders
Tower 470
Transition
Barbara Elliott, Leader
Tower 471
Low-Incidence
Colleen Capper, Leader
Salon IV
At-Risk
Kay Bull, Pat Burns, Leaders
Salon III
Technology
D. J. Olcott, Leader
Salon IV

Tuesday, March 7 (continued)

6:00 - 9:00 pm	Paddlewheel Queen Cruise, Entertainment, and Buffet Dinner COMPLIMENTARY WITH REGISTRATION *Dockside at Pier 66*

Wednesday, March 8

7:30 am - 5:30 pm — Registration/Information
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

7:30 - 9:50 am — Continental Breakfast
COMPLIMENTARY WITH REGISTRATION
Crystal Ballroom

8:30 - 9:50 am — **ACRES/NRSSC Plenary Session**
Welcome and Introduction of Cosponsors and Conference Planners - Doris Helge
Rural Education: Our Nation's Stepchild--Actions for Change
Arnold Hillman is presently serving as the executive director of the 3,000-square-mile Riverview Intermediate Unit--a regional service to seventeen school districts in Northwest Pennsylvania.
Crystal Ballroom

9:50 - 10:10 am — Break
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

10:10 - 11:00 am — ACRES/NRSSC Concurrent Sessions

Effects of a Principal's "Supervision Package"
Ace A. Cossairt, University of Wyoming, Laramie
A principal used a carefully planned "supervision package" with four teachers to increase positive statements to students. Results revealed positive changes in both teachers and students.
Boardroom

LEA Task Force: The High Cost of Poor Planning for Secondary LD Students
Bernard Hannon, Cooperative School Services, Rensselaer, Indiana
This program describes requisite planning process for LD students, including case management, staff inservice, subject area adaptation, and record keeping. The teamwork which must coordinate these concepts will be examined with a focus on rural schools.
Panorama Salon A

Education and Placement Program for At-Risk Adults
Carroll B. Coakley, University of Tennessee, Knoxville
This program provides educational and employment services to high school dropouts and adults in four rural Tennessee communities funded through JPTA.
Tower 470

Technical Assistance for Special Populations Program (TASPP)
Carolyn Maddy-Bernstein, Sheri Kallemback, University of Illinois, Champaign
The National Center's research on rural vocational education has special significance for special populations. This program will describe the research as well as how the Center's TASPP program can benefit those serving special populations in rural America.
Captains

NRSSC Exemplary Program 1: Rural and Small Private Schools
St. Stanislaus School, Jefferson City, Missouri
Sister Carleen Reck, Superintendent of Schools, Diocese of Jefferson City; Lorene Gnaedinger, Elementary School Principal, St. Stanislaus School, Jefferson City, Missouri

The goal of this program is to develop and implement a computer-assisted gifted student tutor program for students one through eight.

Panorama Salon C

Rural Mildly Handicapped Students in the Least Restrictive Environment: Implications for Identification and Intervention
Dean McIntosh, Gail I. Raymond, University of South Carolina, Columbia

This program is designed for special educators who will collaborate with the regular educator in adapting procedures to meet the needs of rural students experiencing learning and/or behavior problems. Focus is on assessment, intervention, and collaboration.

Commodore

Desktop Publishing on Your Apple IIs: The Rural Ed Connection
Kenneth Brookens, Central Missouri State University, Warrensburg

Once possible only on a Macintosh, desktop publishing is now available for Apple IIs. Four new programs will be demonstrated.

Tower 371

Solving Special Education Teacher Shortage in Rural Areas through Training of Indigenous Personnel
Hyrum S. Henderson, Patty Willis, Utah State University, Logan

This presentation describes a cooperative school district/university training program for personnel indigenous to a rural area to be special education teachers.

Tower 361

What Children May Be Telling You Through Their Art
Janet Bush, American Art Therapy Association Representative, Miami, Florida

This presentation is designed to give parents and professionals a way of understanding what children's art is communicating, as well as showing them how to look at children's behavior in relationship to nonverbal expression. Normal developmental benchmarks and warning signals regarding physical, emotional, and sexual abuse, as seen in children's drawings, will be discussed.

Tower 461

Section 504 Requirements for the Education of Children with Handicaps
Maria Dailey, Department of Education of Civil Rights, Atlanta, Georgia

This session will discuss OCR-504 requirements and will provide a practical approach to implementing these requirements in the classroom.

Tower 471

Effect of Sociocultural Factors on the Achievement of Minority Children
Richard F. Rodriguez, Western New Mexico University, Silver City

A research study was conducted to investigate the effect of sociocultural factors on the academic achievement of Mexican-American children identified as learning disabled and assigned part-time to a Resource Room setting.

Tower 360

Communication Workshop
Amy Albers, BOCES Preschool Project, Yorktown Heights, New York
Effective communication skills are essential to ensure that members of a team, program, or school district are working toward the same goal.
Panorama Salon B

11:10 am - Noon NRSSC Concurrent Sessions

Videos Regarding AIDS Education
Three videos on AIDS Education will be available for viewing. These include:
"Everyone Can Avoid AIDS"
"AIDS-Wise, No Lies"
"I Have AIDS--A Teenager's Story"
Tower 360

The Future Problem Solving Program
Anne B. Crabbe, St. Andrews College, Lourinburg, North Carolina
This session will introduce participants to FPS, an international program to challenge capable students. Participants will learn to use the six-step problem solving process used in the program.
Tower 361

HIV/AIDS Infected Students: An Analysis of the Medical/Legal Issues
Wemme E. Walls, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg
Placement of children with AIDS in the school setting raises medical, legal, and emotional issues. The presentation addresses specific policy considerations that are or may be unique to a rural setting.
Tower 371

NRSSC Exemplary Program 2: Preservice/Inservice
Teacher Associate Program (TAP), Franklin Northeast Supervisory Union, Richford, Vermont
Raymond J. McNulty, Superintendent of Schools; Judith Ouellette, Chapter I Teacher, Richford, Vermont
The purpose of the TAP program is to help acclimate, orient, and establish both veteran and new teachers within the culture of the local school district.
Tower 461

Due Process Costs: Impact on Missouri's Rural Schools
Jerry D. Wright, Northwest Missouri State University, Maryville; John R. Morgan, Clear Lake High School, Clear Lake, Iowa
A review of all due process hearings in Missouri from 1976 to 1988 and the impact of P.L. 99-372 on rural schools.
Tower 470

Substance Abuse Prevention: The Tough Questions
Mike Carter, Professor of Health Education, Central Missouri State University, Warrensburg, Missouri
This presentation will address substance abuse issues, particularly those of at-risk students in rural communities.
Commodore

Wednesday, March 8 (continued)

Noon - 1:30 pm **Job-Alike Luncheon - Meet Your Colleagues**

Teacher Educators, Deans, and Directors
Larry Marrs
Health Professionals, Social Workers, Therapists, and Counselors
Vicki Deal
Administrators/School Board Members
Robert Anastasi
General Educators
Sue Hovey
Special Educators
Joe Roberts
State/Regional Agencies/Intermediate Education/Service Units
Peter Biaggio

Salon III & IV

1:30 - 2:20 pm Concurrent Sessions

Visions for Rural Schools: Organization of Rural Schools and Rural Minorities
Gwen L. Bailey, Rural Clearinghouse for Education and Development, Manhattan, Kansas

In conjunction with the Ford Foundation's initiative in rural education, a task force is focusing efforts on building an information base and network in rural education west of the Mississippi River.

Captains

NRSSC Exemplary Program 3: Family/Community/School Partnerships
Arnettsville Happy School, Morgantown, West Virginia
Jenifer Snider, Director of Education, Monongalia County Schools; Mariwynne Strong, Principal, Arnettsville School, Morgantown, West Virginia

The Arnettsville Happy School seeks to provide informational and emotional support to parents and a nursery school experience for young children in the area.

Panorama Salon C

Preservice Rural Teacher Education by Distance Learning: A Model
Cheryl L. Amundsen, McGill University, Montreal, Quebec, Canada; Marilyn K. Johnson, University of Alaska, Anchorage

An organization of information is provided which is drawn from both published and unpublished international sources. It should prove useful to those facing initial program planning decisions.

Boardroom

Instructional Television: A Resource for Rural Professional Development in Rural Isolated Communities
Victoria L. Bernhardt, California State University, Chico

This presentation will describe how instructional television can be a resource for professional development in rural isolated communities.

Commodore

Keeping 'Em Happy and Here: Maine's Support Network for Retention
Margaret A. Arbuckle, Maine Department of Education, Augusta; Susan Doughty, Center for Educational Services, Auburn, Maine; Kathryn Markovchick, University of Maine

An overview of the project will be presented and discussed, including the design and content of support activities, their impact, accomplishments, and conditions leading to them.

Tower 360

Students with Severe Disabilities: Yes, They Are Our Responsibility
Colleen A. Capper, University of Wisconsin, Madison

Participants will discuss the role of regular teachers, principals, and superintendents when these students attend their closest local, rural school, and are educated in the general education program.

Tower 470

Developing Administrative Vision
Edward W. Chance, University of Oklahoma, Norman

This session will address the concept of administrative vision and will provide participants an opportunity to develop or refine their educational vision.

Tower 361

Improving Science Education in Rural Elementary Schools: A New Approach
Judy M. Dacus, Nora Hutto, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces

The New Mexico Rural Science Education Project assists rural elementary teachers in developing natural history field schools and natural history activities for the classroom.

Tower 461

Supervised Career Opportunities in a Rural Environment–Project SCORE
John M. Beard, Humboldt Unified School District, Dewey, Arizona

This presentation will focus on the development and establishment of community-based work sites for special needs students, related instruction/skill enhancement, and curriculum design strategies.

Tower 471

Closing the Gap with Electronic Mail: Pre- and inservice Applications
Peter Burpee, McGill University, Montreal, Quebec, Canada; Brenda Wilson, Trafalgar School, Montreal, Quebec, Canada

This session describes a Canadian project that uses electronic mail to enhance learning through correspondence courses and other electronic mail applications for schools.

Tower 371

1:30 - 3:20 pm **AIDS Education Forum**

Yvonne Stone, Maryland teacher; Doran Davis-Churvin, Education Development Center; Missy Fleming, American Medical Association; Pat Nichols, interstate training project; Joel M. Levy, Young Adult Institute; and Vivian Haines, National Association of School Nurses

This open forum will provide sharing of resources, expertise, strategies, and collaborative efforts for implementing AIDS education in rural schools.

Panorama Salon A

Wednesday, March 8 (continued)

2:30 - 3:20 pm Concurrent Sessions

Recruitment, Selection, Induction, and Retention of Rural Teachers
Dwight Hare, Northeast Louisiana University, Monroe

Research is utilized to address identified elements of the teacher labor market by developing practical applications and long-term policy.

Boardroom

Anticipating the 21st Century: Avoiding the Teacher Shortage
David Bell, Arkansas Tech University, Russellville; Georgine Steinmiller, Henderson State University, Arkadelphia, Arkansas

This program is designed to assist participants in understanding basic issues in the recruitment of teachers for work in rural areas. Practical suggestions for recruitment activities will be offered.

Tower 471

NRSSC Exemplary Program 4: Educational Technology
Pine Hill Schools Excellence in Writing Program, Pine Hill, New Mexico
Anna Mae Pino, Superintendent of Schools; Sena Fitzpatrick, Chapter I Teacher, Coordinator, Pine Hill Schools, Pine Hill, New Mexico

The goal of the Excellence in Writing Program is to improve the quality of Navajo students' writing in terms of fluency, clarity, correctness, and maturity as scored on a holistic writing evaluation. It combines the word processing technology on microcomputers with writing process instruction to form a methodology of writing instruction that will be successful with Native Americans.

Panorama Salon C

"Effective Schools" Policy Training for Rural School Boards
Richard P. Lipka, Pittsburg State University, Kansas

The session will focus on appropriate practices for rural school boards interested in supporting the "effective schools" concept within their districts. In addition to an analysis and synthesis of the existing literature, the following are included in this session: 1) the results of a questionnaire study of school board practices in rural schools that have been adjudicated as "effective," and 2) a complete discussion of the board training program used in Baxter Springs, Kansas.

Tower 470

Rural Transition: Planning for A.C.C.E.S.S.
Mary Ann Brenzovich, St. Mary's County Public Schools, Leonardtown, Maryland

The presentation highlights the results of a rural county's efforts to provide effective transition services for the disabled.

Tower 371

Five-Year Teacher Education Programs: Potential Impact on Rural Schools
Kay S. Bull, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater

This session examines issues from Holmes/Carnegie reports for changes in teacher education and how these may be used to force consolidation of rural schools.

Captains

Teaching "AP Calculus by Satellite": Reflections of the First Year
James Choike, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater

This presentation will be for educators who are interested in teaching via satellite, want to integrate satellite-delivered courses in their school systems, or are simply curious about the future of technology-assisted teaching.

Tower 361

Urban University/Rural School Districts Exchange Training Model
Dvenna A. Duncan, Ellyn Arwood, Mabel Brown, Linda Makohon, University of Portland, Oregon

This presentation will describe a program which encourages urban college students to accept employment in rural districts while providing inservice training to teachers in remote school districts.

Commodore

NRSSC Exemplary Program 5: Elementary Curriculum and Instruction
Super Student–Big Brother/Big Sister Program–"Winning the Game Called School," Green Sea Floyds Elementary School, Green Sea, South Carolina
Shirley Huggins, Elementary Principal; John N. Chanace, Jr., Elementary Counselor, Green Sea Floyds Elementary School, Green Sea, South Carolina

"Super Student–Winning the Game Called School" is a study skills program that builds self-esteem/self-concept, and is designed to make students the winners in schools. This program is enhanced and supported with business/education partnerships.

Tower 461

The Re-Entry Professional
Sandra Stuart-Siddall, California State University, Chico

Rural areas are in definite need of professional services. In the rural communities surrounding this campus, we have designed a program that will help acculturalize the re-entry professional to working in a rural facility.

Tower 360

3:20 - 3:40 pm — Break
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

3:40 - 4:30 pm — Concurrent Sessions

Children with AIDS in the Public Schools
Lee Coose, School Board of Sarasota City, Florida; Bruce Hinson, Florida Diagnostic/Learning Resource System, Sarasota

The primary focus of this presentation relates to the development of a school board policy which provides an education for HIV/AIDS students in the public schools.

Tower 361

Literacy–The Challenge of the 21st Century: A Rural Perspective
Terry A. Feick, Donna Myers, Frances R. Tye, Washington Court House City Schools, Washington Court House, Ohio

A program that effectively teaches children from a rural background to think, read, write, listen, and speak will be presented.

Tower 360

Wednesday, March 8 (continued)

A Rural Education Network's Portfolio of Cost-Saving Activities
Eugene P. LeDoux, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque

Rural administrators will be provided with a variety of activities that can be undertaken by rural educational networks. Examples of projects/initiatives will be provided.

Tower 371

Preservice Model: Training for the Use of Metacognitive and Learning Strategies
James E. Calder, Deborah L. Smith, Phillip B. Waldrop, Arkansas State University, State University

This presentation will include the integration of the Cognitive Curriculum of Young Children and the Strategies Intervention Approach (including field experiences) into pre-existing teacher preparation programs.

Tower 461

Rural Student "At-Risk" Task Force
Captains

4:30 - 6:00 pm	NRSSC Advisory Board Meeting *Boardroom*
4:30 - 7:00 pm	Hospitality/Cash Bar at Poolside

Thursday, March 9

7:30 am. - 5:30 pm — Registration/Information
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

8:30 - 9:50 am — **Plenary Session**
Introduction and Conference Awards - Larry Marrs
"Current Legislative Events and Their Effects on Rural and Small Schools"
Joseph Schneider
Salon I & II

9:50 - 10:10 am — Break
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

10:10 - Noon — **Panel: AIDS Education in Rural and Small Schools**
Beth Boyles, Centers for Disease Control; Yvonne Stone, rural Maryland teacher and panel moderator; Pat Nichols, interstate training project; Kay Emerson-Roy, health education consultant; Alys Kennedy, private practice counselor; and Vivian Haines, National Association of School Nurses.
Salon IV

10:10 - 11:00 am — Concurrent Sessions

A Model for Science Education Reform in Rural Schools: Inservice Program for Local Team Leadership Development
J. Preston Prather, Robert L. Hartshorn, University of Tennessee, Martin

This presentation will explicate a successful program for reform of elementary science instruction in rural schools and provide information for its replication.

Tower 371

NRSSC Exemplary Program 6: Research nd Evaluation
Rural Special Education Consultant Low-Incidence Teacher Training Program, Western Oregon State College, Monmouth
Cheron J. Mayhall, Director COPE, Salem, Oregon; Bonnie J. Young, Director Oregon Center for Curriculum Change, Monmouth

The purpose of this program is to increase the number of special education teachers who are effective and are willing to work in rural/remote areas.

Tower 471

Rural Schools Self-Documentation: Building a Workable Information System
Dennis D. Gooler, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb; Larry Friedman, North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, Elmhurst, Illinois; Gregory Sales, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis

This presentation will report on the progress of a project aimed at creating a microcomputer-based information system for and about rural schools.

Tower 461

Rural Teaching Effectiveness Network
James B. Gray, University of Maryland-Eastern Shore, Princess Anne; John Wolenski, Salisbury State University, Salisbury, Maryland; Terry Hammerbacker, Staff Development, Newark, Maryland

This session is a review of a preservice/inservice network that provides a continuum of training to support the employment of research-based teaching skills in the rural classroom.

Tower 360

Thursday, March 9 (continued)

Preventing Dropout Runaways
Wilbur F. Kalinke, Marathon County Special Education, Wausau, Wisconsin
In this session, interviews on the streets from coast to coast with surviving dropout runaway youth reveal common characteristics and recommendations for prevention.
Tower 361

A Reliable Instrument to Measure Parent Involvement in Rural Schools
Craig B. Howley, ERIC/CRESS--Appalachia Educational Laboratory, Charleston, West Virginia, and Staff of Hart County Schools, Kentucky
This presentation will discuss the continuing development and application in a poor, rural school district of an instrument that is sufficiently valid and reliable to measure changes in the level of parent involvement.
Tower 470

Curriculum for Severely Disabled Students: A Pyramidal Model
Gloria M. Palma, Appalachian State University, Boone, North Carolina
In this presentation, an overview of a communication-based curriculum specifically designed to meet the needs of severely disabled Navajo children will be discussed.
Captains

11:10 am - Noon Concurrent Sessions

Panel: AIDS Education in Rural and Small Schools
10:10 am session continued....*Salon IV*

A Model for Science Education Reform in Rural Schools: Inservice Program for Local Team Leadership Development
J. Preston Prather, Robert L. Hartshorn
10:10 am session continued....*Tower 371*

Accountability in Rural Education: The Role Information
Catherine Hamed, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb
This session describes the role of a management information system in rural education. It discusses how to design a program of information collection, analysis, and access.
Tower 470

Databasics: New Developments from ERIC for Rural Educators and Parents
Linda Miller, Craig B. Howley, Todd Strohmenger, Berma Lanham, ERIC/CRESS--Appalachian Educational Laboratory, Charleston, West Virginia
This workshop explains why ERIC on CD-ROM is a valuable resource for small, rural school districts.
Tower 461

Rural Teacher Education for the 21st Century: A Minnesota Outreach Model
John H. Halcrow, Bemidji State University, Bemidji, Minnesota
This presentation is an outreach distance learning program containing a special education component for the training of elementary teachers at the baccalaureate level.
Tower 360

Inservice Education for Special Education Teachers in Rural Areas
Sandra Silver, Paul Bunyan Elementary School, Bemidji, Minnesota

The purpose of this session is to present an inservice model that is readily adaptable to the needs of the isolated rural special education teacher.

Tower 471

Cooperative Inservice for Cooperative Learning for Mainstreaming Success
Joanne W. Putnam, Kathryn F. Markovchick, University of Maine, Farmington; Marcia Fogg, Gardiner School System, Gardiner, Maine

This presentation will describe a cooperative professional development model that promotes and facilitates mainstreaming students with mild to moderate handicapping conditions in regular classes.

Tower 361

Noon - 1:30 pm **NRSSC Exemplary Rural and Small Schools Exemplary Program Awards Luncheon**

Larry Marrs, presiding
Charles O'Malley, Mary France Gordon, presenting awards
Winners:

Rural and Small Private Schools
St. Stanislaus School
Sister Carlene Reck, Lorene Gnaedinger

Preservice/Inservice Training
Teacher Associate Program (TAP)
Raymond McNulty, Judith Ouellette

Family/Community/School Partnerships
Arnettsville Happy School
Jenifer Snider, Mariwynne Strong

Educational Technology
Pine Hill School's Excellence in Writing Program
Anna Mae Pino, Sena Fitspatrick

Elementary Curriculum and Instruction
Super Student--Big Brother/Big Sister Program
Shirley Huggins, John N. Chanaca, Jr.

Research and Evaluation
Rural Special Education Consultant Low-Incidence Teacher Training Program
Bonnie J. Young, Cheron J. Mayhall

Secondary Curriculum and Instruction
"The Way-Off Broadway Delicatessen"
Thomas Paquin, Donna E. Weeks

Cross-Cultural Services
Integration of Indian Studies
Lydia Whirlwind Soldier, Larry Thacker

Adult Education and Community Action
Community Education Program
Margaret Phelps, Kathy Lewis

At-Risk Students
STARS (Success at To'Hajiilee with At-Risk Students)
Daniel W. Fox, Harriette Barber

Salon I & II

Thursday, March 9 (continued)

1:30 - 4:30 pm **Workshop:**
Techniques for Enhancing Student Self-Esteem
Alys Kennedy, Clinical Counselor, Private Practice, Bellingham, Washington
This session will experientially train teachers in communication skills and other techniques designed to enhance teacher and student self-esteem.
Panorama Salon C

1:30 - 2:20 pm Concurrent Sessions

Tennessee's National Model for Rural Education
Kathy Lewis, Tennessee's Center for Rural Education, Jamestown
This workshop describes and explains the structure of a state-operated and wholly state-financial model rural comprehensive secondary school.
Tower 471

Project Network: A Four-Course Teleseries in Early Childhood Education
Penny Royce, Nevada Department of Human Resources, Sparks; Rhoda Cummings, University of Nevada, Reno
This presentation will describe the application of state-of-the-art telecommunications technology to provide university-credit classes to early childhood special education inservice and preservice students living in remote rural areas.
Tower 361

Staff Development: Theory & Practice in Rural Schools
William Peter, Missouri Schools Service Center, Warrensburg
What's new? What's hot? What works? What are the steps in organizing an effective professional development program? Where can we find good, interesting, and effective speakers and consultants, particularly ones that won't break the bank?
Captains

Rural-Based Mentor/Intern Teacher Project: Building Bridges, Not Walls
Michael P. Wolfe, Barbara McConville, SUNY-Plattsburgh, New York
This session will present the Plattsburgh Rural Mentor/Intern Consortium's unique training materials and methods for inducting new teachers into the profession.
Salon IV

Early Childhood Preventive Curriculum (ECPC)
Nathan Farber, Early Childhood Preventive Curriculum, Miami, Florida
A first grade diagnostic-prescriptive teacher management systems approach to preventing learning problems will be demonstrated. Nationally validated, innovative, and effective for at-risk children.
Tower 360

Inservice Techniques for Low-Incidence Populations in Rural Settings
Richard W. Miske, Area Education Agency #4, Orange City, Iowa
Techniques and strategies for inservicing regular education teachers on how to work with hearing impaired students will be discussed.
Tower 371

Self-Management: A Promising Procedure for Serving Learning Disabled Students
Deborah J. Smith, J. Ron Nelson, Utah State University, Logan

The purpose of this session is to present a self-management procedure which has been field-tested with learning disabled, behaviorally disordered children, and youth.

Tower 470

NRSSC Exemplary Program 7: Secondary Curriculum and Instruction
"The Way-Off Broadway Delicatessen," St. Pauls City Schools, St. Pauls, North Carolina
Thomas Paquin, Superintendent of Schools; Donnie E. Weeks, Assistant Superintendent

The primary goal of this unique project is to provide real life experiences. Rather than a textbook activity, students learn by actually doing. They are taking responsibility to assess, plan, and develop a concept and to see it through to reality. The end results benefit the students economically and while helping the financial growth of the community.

Commodore

2:30 - 3:20 pm Concurrent Sessions

Self-Management: A Promising Procedure for Serving Learning Disabled
Deborah J. Smith, J. Ron Nelson
1:30 session continued....*Tower 470*

Workshop: Techniques for Enhancing Student Self-Esteem
Alys Kennedy 1:30 session continued....*Panorama Salon C*

NRSSC Exemplary Program 8: Cross-Cultural Services
Integration of Indian Studies, Todd County School District, Mission, South Dakota
Larry Thacker, Superintendent of Schools; Lydia Whirlwind Soldier, Coordinator of Indian Studies

The purpose of this program is to establish Indian Studies as an integral and meaningful complement to the regular instructional program, and to provide all students with knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of the American Indian culture and heritage.

Salon II

Successful Strategy for Classroom Management: Hands On Science
Nancy J. Walters, Beverly Cantrall, University of Tennessee, Martin

This session will present and review the development of a successful plan for classroom management and provide demonstration for replication.

Tower 360

Networking to Improve Rural Education Opportunities: A La New Mexico
Eugene P. LaDoux, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque; Casey Martinez, Pojoaque Valley Schools, Santa Fe, New Mexico

Rural administrators will be provided with a variety of activities that can be undertaken by rural educational networks.

Tower 461

Thursday, March 9 (continued)

Delivery of Inservice and Technical Assistance to Rural Educators
John A. McLaughlin, Wemme E. Walls, Cyndi B. Roberts, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, Virginia
A service delivery model for providing training/technical assistance to school professionals serving special needs students in rural and/or geographically isolated areas will be presented.
Tower 471

Life Skills to Manage Risks: A Key to Healthy Staff and Students
Len E. Tritsch, National School Health Education Coalition, Salem, Oregon
This session will consist of group participation and presentations about successful program/activities addressing risk-taking behaviors.
Tower 371

Programs for At-Risk Students: Language Remedial and Special Education
Lee Ross, Rita Adams, Green County Technical School District, Paragould, Arkansas
This presentation will use discussion and audio-visuals to demonstrate programs used to help at-risk students.
Tower 361

2:20 - 3:40 pm — Break
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

3:40 - 4:30 pm — Concurrent Sessions

Successful Strategies for Classroom Management: Hands on Science
Nancy J. Walters — 2:30 session continued....*Tower 360*

Networking to Improve Rural Education Opportunities: A La New Mexico
Eugene P. LeDoux, Casey Martinez
2:30 session continued....*Tower 461*

Delivery of Inservice and Technical Assistance to Rural Educators
John A. McLaughlin, Wemme E. Walls, Cyndi B. Roberts
2:30 session continued....*Tower 471*

Life Skills to Manage Risks: A Key to Healthy Staff and Students
Len S. Tritsch — 2:30 session continued....*Tower 371*

Programs for At-Risk Students: Language Remedial and Special Education
Lee Ross, Rita Adams — 2:30 session continued....*Tower 361*

Thursday, March 9 (continued)

NRSSC Exemplary Program 9: Adult Education and Community Action
Community Education Program, Alvin C. York Institute, Jamestown, Tennessee
Margaret Phelps, Director of Rural Education, Tennessee Tech University, Cookeville, Tennessee; Kathy Lewis, Director of Rural Education, Alvin C. York Institute, Jamestown, Tennessee

Some of the goals of this program are to help people establish self-confidence, involve parents who were dropouts in an education program, encourage support of parents enrolled in adult education to be involved with the educational program of their children, and create a positive attitude toward learning.

Tower 470

4:30 - 6:30 pm — Hospitality/Cash Bar at Poolside

4:40 - 6:00 pm — JRSS Editorial Board Meeting
Boardroom

Friday, March 10

7:30 am - 5:00 pm — Registration/Information
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

8:30 - 9:50 am — **Plenary Session**

Warlene Gary, NEA, presiding
Creative Solutions in Rural School Teaching—Comments from the Originator of Foxfire
Eliot Wigginton has taught school in Rabun County, Georgia, since 1966. *Foxfire Magazine*, which he started with his ninth- and tenth-graders in 1966, is still produced quarterly by students at Rabun County High School. Two students will participate in the presentation.
Salon I & II

9:50 - 10:10 am — Break
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

10:10 am 4:00 pm — **AIDS Trainer-of-Trainers Seminar**
Beth Broyles, Centers for Disease Control; Marie Dinon, Resource Coordinator, Department of Health and Rehabilitation, Fort Meyers, Florida; Joel Levy, Young Adult Institute; Yvonne Stone, rural Maryland teacher; Alan Oliver, New York State Department of Health; Alys Kennedy, private practice counselor regarding student self-esteem development.
This seminar is designed to disseminate field-tested approaches to AIDS education.
Captains

10:10 - 11:00 am — Concurrent Sessions

Networking Science Teaching in Small & Rural Schools
David H. May, Whitman College, Walla Walla, Washington
A report on efforts being made by a consortium of small/rural schools to improve instruction in elementary school science using materials, kits, and modules.
Tower 461

NRSSC Exemplary Program for At-Risk Students
STARS (Success at To'Hajiilee with At-Risk Students), Canoncito, New Mexico
Harriette Barber, Nurse Practitioner, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque; Daniel W. Fox, Principal, To'Hajiilee Community School, Canoncito, New Mexico
The principal goals of this program are to raise the awareness of the total community and faculty to the needs of "at-risk" youth and provide alternatives to youth whose impoverished life styles seem to foster behavior problems.
Tower 470

Rural Schools and Their Communities: A Success Story
Bill J. Reynolds, JoAnn Martin-Reynolds, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio
This session will feature findings from a study of three rural school districts which investigated school policies and practices, curriculum teaching, and community values for relationships to student character development.
Tower 471

FRIDAY, MARCH 10

Friday, March 10 (continued)

Academic Achievement in America's Small Schools: Data from High School & Beyond
Walter G. McIntire, Scott F. Marion, University of Maine, Orono

The relationships of school size, school setting, and gender to academic achievement and educational attainment will be reported. District consolidation policies will be addressed.

Tower 360

Videodisc-Assisted Preservice Training in Classroom Interaction Skills
Charles L. Salzberg, Sara Rule Salzberg, Utah State University, Logan

A videodisc-based curriculum to teach instructional interaction skills to preservice teacher trainees will be presented. The advantages and the limitations of videodisc media for teacher training will be addressed.

Tower 361

Breaking the Isolation: Supporting and Retaining Rural Teachers in Northern California
Victoria L. Bernhardt, California State University, Chico

The objectives of this presentation are to describe the Induction for the Beginning Teacher Program (IBT)--an extremely successful beginning teacher program model for use in rural settings--to share the program evaluation results, and to discuss the reasons for its success.

Tower 371

11:10 am - Noon Concurrent Sessions

Meeting the Prevention Needs of Rural School Districts
Michael C. Bodensteiner, Southeast Kansas Education Service Center, Girard

The primary goals of this presentation will be to review five integrated projects designed to assist rural and small school districts in implementing prevention instruction.

Tower 461

Charting the Course Together: An Experience in Long-Range Planning
James W. Mahoney, Superintendent; Edwin Leas, Assistant Superintendent; Barbara Hansen, Director of Special Projects, East Muskingum Schools, New Concord, Ohio; Crystal Gips, Ohio University, Athens

Participants will hear details of the long-range planning process, see videotapes of meetings, receive sample documents used, and listen to an evaluation of the process.

Tower 361

Team Teaching: Bridging the Gap in the Continuum
Mary Ann Brenzovich, St. Mary's County Public Schools, Leonardtown, Maryland

The presentation highlights a review of research, as well as the results of a local study of the effectiveness of team teaching programs for the disabled.

Tower 371

The Northern Coalition Teacher Center
Sandra Silver, Paul Bunyan Elementary School, Bemidji, Minnesota

The Northern Coalition for Education received a grant to establish a Teacher Center. Activities and progress to date will be chronicled.

Tower 470

Supporting Beginning Teachers in Small and Rural Schools
June Lemke, University of Redlands, California

Presentation of a review of literature concerning needs of beginning teachers in rural and small schools, and programs districts find effective in recruitment and retention.

Tower 360

Educating the Nigerian Citizenry for the 21st Century: The Role of Adult Education
Dr. Adeniji Adaralegbe, Fulbright Scholar, Professor of Educational Administration, Obafemi Awolowo University, Nigeria

This presentation addresses the need for adult Nigerian citizenry to pursue continuing education in order to function in the Nigerian society of the 21st century of science, technology, and global world challenges.

Tower 471

1:00 - 5:00 pm NEA Teacher Institute (coffee break provided)

Sometimes a Shining Moment: The Foxfire Experience
Eliot Wigginton

The book *Sometimes a Shining Moment: The Foxfire Experience* details how a philosophy of education is experiential and community-based, affective but also academically unassailable, and is employed every day within the walls of a traditional, rural public high school. The sixteen courses that hew to the philosophy are not only allowed to exist in Georgia's conservative educational climate, but are cheered by both local and state boards of education. This workshop will explore the implications of this fact for teachers in other school environments--rural, suburban, and urban. In today's climate of national educational reform, to what extent can the existence of teachers who deviate widely from texts and workbooks be tolerated? How can they survive and prosper? Why should they?

Salon IV

5:00 - 7:00 pm Hospitality/Cash Bar at Poolside

Saturday, March 11

7:30 am - Noon — Registration/Information
Crystal Ballroom Foyer

8:00 am - 5:00 pm — NEA Teacher Institute (continued from Friday)
Sometimes a Shining Moment: The Foxfire Experience
Eliot Wigginton
(coffee breaks provided; lunch on your own)
Salon IV

9:00 am - 3:00 pm — NAESP Administrator Institute
Leadership Behavior and Group Process Workshop for School-Based Administrators
Robert Anastasi, National Association of Elementary School Principals

Basing the presentation on a model developed by Dr. Ken Blanchard (author of *Situational Leadership* and the *One-Minute Manager*), Dr. Anastasi will explore the practical "how and when" of using different leadership styles. Participants will gain an understanding of the proficiencies needed to work with groups in the school setting.

(coffee breaks provided; lunch on your own)
Salon III

Sunday, March 12

8:00 am - Noon — NEA Teacher Institute (continued from Saturday)
Sometimes a Shining Moment: The Foxfire Experience
Eliot Wigginton
(coffee break provided)
Salon IV

SATURDAY, MARCH 11

SUNDAY, MARCH 12

Subscribe to JRSS!

The *Journal of Rural and Small Schools* is the only national scholarly journal devoted exclusively to issues in rural and small school education. The *Journal's* purpose is to provide practical, field-oriented articles relevant to rural and small school district management and instruction.

Subscription to the *Journal of Rural and Small Schools* is included in National Rural and Small Schools Consortium (NRSSC) membership. For an independent subscription, please complete and return this form.

Please begin my one-year subscription (three issues) to the *Journal of Rural and Small Schools*.

INDIVIDUAL SUBSCRIPTION

___ $25.00 (Nonmember)

___ $18.00 (ACRES members)

LIBRARY SUBSCRIPTION

___ $45.00 JRSS only

___ $80.00 JRSS and *Rural Special Education Quarterly*

___ Please send me NRSSC membership information.

___ Please send me ACRES membership information.

Method of payment: (U.S. funds only, payable to *National Rural Account*. For addresses outside the U.S., please add $6.00 for postage.)

___ Check or money order enclosed

___ Purchase order enclosed (P.O.#:_____)

___ VISA #_____ Exp. Date: _____

___ Mastercard #_____ Exp. Date: _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Name:_____

Address: _____

_____

City State Zipcode

Telephone:(_____) _____

Return this form and method of payment to:

NRDI
Miller Hall 359
Western Washington University
Bellingham, WA 98225

Ms. Amy Albers
BOCES Preschool Project
Projects Building
Yorktown Heights NY 10590

Dr. Cheryl L. Amundsen
McGill Univ. Cntr for Tcho & Lang
3700 McTavish
Montreal, Quebec CAN H3A 1Y2

Peggy Anderson
Dept of Spec Education Box 879
Southeastern Louisiana Univ
Hammond LA 70402

Durlynn Anema
University of the Pacific
Stockton CA 95211

Margaret A. Arbuckle
Maine Department of Education
Dept of Educ & Cultural Svc
Augusta ME 04333

Gwen L. Bailey
Rural Clearinghouse-Educ/Dvlpmnt
306 Umberger Hall
Manhattan KS 66506

David Barnes
Bennington-Rutland Union
P.O. Box 580
Manchester Center VT 05255

John Beard
Humboldt Unified School Dist
Drawer A
Dewey AZ 86327

Dr. Karen Beauchamp
Dept of Spec Educ/U of Illinois
403 E. Healey St.
Champaign IL 61820

Karen Beidelman Harper
Infant Sensory Enrich Ed. Center
442 Sierra Trail
Coralville IA 52241

Dr. David Bell
Arkansas Tech University
Crabaugh Hall
Russellville AR 72801

Terry Berkeley
Dept of Admin/Sprvsn, Gallaudet Univ
205 Fowler Hall, 800 Florida Ave, NE
Washington DC 20002

Lisa Bloom
West Virginia University
504 Allen Hall
Morgantown WV 26506

Michael C. Bodensteiner
SE Kansas Educ Service Cntr
Box 189
Girard KS 66762

Ms. Mary Ann Brenzovich
St. Mary's County Pub Schools
Rt. 1, Box 49-2
Leonardtown MD 20650

Donn Brolin
Dept of Ed & Counseling Psych
111 Townsend Hall, Univ MO-Columbia
Columbia MO 65211

Kenneth Brookens
Central Missouri State Univ
409 Lovinger
Warrensburg MO 64093

Dr. Kay S. Bull
Oklahoma State Univ
309 North Murray Hall
Stillwater OK 74078

Ruth Burgess
Southwest Missouri State Univ
901 South National
Springfield MO 65804

Dr. Peter Burpee
McGill University
3700 McTavish
Monteal. Quebec CAN H3A 1Y2

James Calder
Mild Learning Handicapped Pgrm
Arkansas State Univ,P.O. Box 940
University AR 72467

Edward W. Chance
University of Oklahoma
820 Van Vleet Oval
Norman OK 73019

Moon Chang
Nicholls State University
Dept of Dev Programs, PO Box 2035
Thibodaux LA 70310

Michael Chirichello
Hampton Township Board of Ed
Rd 10, Box 10771
Newton NJ 07860

Dr. James Choike
Oklahoma State University
205 Life Sciences East
Stillwater OK 74078

Dr. Carroll B. Coakley
Univ of Tennessee, Knoxville
435 Claxton Addition
Knoxville TN 37996-3400

Dr. Libby Cohen
University of Southern Maine
400 Bailey Hall
Gorham ME 04038

Dr. Charles C. Coker
Univ of Wisconsin--Stout
Ed & Human Services Bldg, 511
Menomonie WI 54751

Martha Cook
Univ of Alabama, Area of Spec Ed
P.O. Box 870231
Tuscaloosa AL 35487-0231

Rebecca Cook
Dept of Spec Ed, Univ of Illinois
Col Wolfe School, 403 Healey St
Champaign IL 61820

Lee Coose
School Brd of Sarasota Co FL
3450 Gocio Road
Sarasota FL 34235

Dr. Ace Cossairt
University of Wyoming
Box 3374 Area of Special Ed
Laramie WY 82071

Anne B. Crabbe
St. Andrews College
Lourinburg NC 28352

Dr. W.N. "Skeet" Creekmore
Northeast Louisiana University
239 Strauss Hall, College of Ed
Monroe LA 71209

Terry Crowe
University of Washington
Dept of Rehab Medicine RJ-30
Seattle WA 98195

Judy M. Dacus
Ctr for Rural Ed, NMSU
Box 30001, Dept 3R NMSU
Las Cruces NM 88003-0001

Patricia Davis
Leon County Schools
1940 N. Monroe
Tallahassee FL 32303

Dr. Stephen Dempsey
University of Nevada Las Vegas
4505 Maryland Parkway
Las Vegas NV 89154

Frederick A. DiazGranados
Murtaugh Joint School District 418
Box 117
Murtaugh ID 83344

Dr Dvenna A. Duncan
Univ of Portland, School of Ed
5000 N. Willamette Blvd.
Portland OR 97203

Marion Duncan
University of Alabama
P.O. Box 582
Tuscaloosa AL 35402

Dr. Winnie Dunn
UK Medical Center
4th Fl Hinch Hall, 39th & Rainbow
Kansas City KS 66103

Kempt Edmondson
Alchesaq High School
P.O. Box 190
Whiteriver AZ 85941

Jean Faieta
West Virginia University
504 Allen Hall
Morgantown WV 26506

Mr. Nathan Farber
Early Childhood Preventive Curr
9240 S.W. 124 Street
Miami FL 33176-5161

Mr. Terry Feick
Wash. Court House City Schools
306 Highland Avenue
Washington C.H. OH 43160

Dr. David Finn
University of Alabama--Birmingham
P.O. Box 313
Birmingham AL 35294

Ms. Sheila Firestone
St. Andrews College
Lourinburg NC

Linda Flynn
Eastern Illinois University
Buzzard Bldg, Special Ed Dept
Charleston IL 61920-3099

Dr. Nona Flynn
Parent Ed Advoc Training Cntr
128 S. Pitt Street
Alexandria VA 22102

Trudie Friedly
Covenant Med Center, St. Francis
145 West Orange Road
Waterloo IA 50701

Kent Gerlach
Pacific Lutheran University
121st and Pacific Avenue
Tacoma WA 98447

Kathy Goff
Torrence Center, Univ of Georgia
422 Aderhold Hall
Athens GA 30602

Dennis D. Gooler
Northern Illinois University
College of Education, LEPS
DeKalb IL 60115

James Gray
Univ of Maryland Eastern Shore
Princess Anne MD 21853

Dr. John Halcrow
Bemidji State University
Bemidji MN 56601

William Hallett
Polk County Schls - Roosevelt Voc
115 "E" Street
Lake Wales FL 33853

Arline Halper
Rural Transition Program Specialist
George Washington University
Washington D.C. 20052

Dr. Dwight Hare
Northeast Louisiana University
329 Strauss Hall
Monroe LA 71209-0230

Dr. Toni Heinze
Northern Illinois University
Dept of Ed Psychology & Sp Ed
Dekalb IL 60115

Kathryn Heller
Georgia State University
Dept of Spec Ed, University Plaza
Atlanta GA 30303

Anita Hodges
PARENTS Project
300 Enola Road
Morgantown NC 28655

Mr. Craig Howley
ERIC/CRESS - Appalachia Ed Lab
P.O. Box 1348
Charleston WV 25325

Ms. Janet Jacoby
Parent Education Network
2215 E. Henry Avenue
Tampa FL 33610

E. Janet Jamieson
VT Cntr for Ed Leadrshp Dvlpmnt
P.O. Box 580
Manchester Center VT 05255

Dr. Marilyn Johnson
Univ of Alaska Anchorage
School of Education
Anchorage AK 99508

Bonnie Joyce
University of South Florida
Dept of Spec Educ, HMS 475
Tampa FL 33620

Mr. Wilbur Kalinke
Marathon County Special Ed
P.O. Box 432
Wausau WI 54402

Phyllis Kelly
Kansas State Dept. of Spec Ed
120 East 10th
Topeka KS 66612

Maxine Kilgrease
Western Oregon State College
345 North Monmouth Ave
Monmouth OR 97361

Dr. Dennis Knapczyk
Indiana University
Smith Research Center 170
Bloomington IN 47401

Patricia Knesel
Northeastern Louisiana Univ
239 Strauss Hall, College of Ed
Monroe LA 71209

Dr. Imogene Land
Oklahoma State University
311 North Murray Hall
Stillwater OK 74078

Aileen Lau
19 Barony Lane
Hilton Head SC 29928

Beth Lee
The Rehabiliation Center
Box 309, S. Nine Mile Road
Allegany NY 14706

Kathy Lewis
Tennessee Center for Rural Ed
P.O. Box 70
Jamestown TN 38556

Dr. Richard P. Lipka
Pittsburg State University
110 Huges Hall
Pittsburg KS 66762

Dr. John Luckner
Dept of Ed Psych & Spec Ed
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb IL 60115

Barbara Ludlow
West Virginia University
504 Allen Hall
Morgantown WV 26506

Dr. Barbara Luetke-Stahlman
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb IL 60115

Carolyn Maddy-Bernstein
University of Illinois
Education Bldg Room 345
Champaign IL 61820

James W. Mahoney
East Muskingum Schools
13505 John Glenn School Road
New Concord OH 43762

Dr. David H. May
Whitman College
345 Boyer St.
Walla Walla WA 99362

Lynda Mazzola
Cued Speech Assoc of Maine
R7D #1
Leeds ME 04263

Iva Dene McCleary
University of Utah
221 Milton Bennion Hall
Salt Lake City UT 34112

Jonathan McIntire
Vermont Achievement Center
88 Park Street
Rutland VT 05701

Walter G. McIntire
College of Ed, Univ of Maine
Rm. 314 Shiblee Hall
Orono ME 04469

Dr. Dean Mc ;tosh
University of South Carolina
Dept of Ed Psychology
Columbia SC 29208

John McLaughlin
College of Ed/Virginia Tech
Inst - Study of Exceptionalities
Blacksburg VA 24061-0533

Linda Miller
AEL, ERIC/CRESS
P.O. Box 1348
Charleston WV 25325

Paulette Mills
Exp Ed Unit, U of Washington
CDMRC WJ-10/UW
Seattle WA 98195

Richard Miske
Area Education Agency 4
102 S Main
Sioux Center IA 51250

Jeniece Nelson
Pennsylvania State University
104 Moore Building
University Park PA 16802

Mr. Derek Newbury
Powys Local Educ Authority, UK
St. Philip, Broadway
Llandrindod Wells Powys UK LD1 5HT

Richard O'Donnell
Special Educ Service Agency
2211-B Arca Drive
Anchorage AK 99508

D.J. Olcott
University of Missouri
202 Hill Hall
Columbia MO 65211

Gloria M. Palma
Applachian State University
510 Forest Hill Drive
Boone NC 28608

Linda Pearl
ETNSUniv-Cntr for Early Childhood
Box 15, 520 A
Johnson City TN 37614

Willis J. Perry
West Virginia University
Rt. 5 Box 167A
Parkersburg WV 26101

William Peter
Missouri Schools Service Center
Lov211, CMSU
Warrensburg MO 64093

Joyce Peters
Teaching Research
345 N. Monmouth Avenue
Monmouth OR 97361

Linda Pitts
Parent Education Network
2215 E. Henry Ave.
Tampa FL 33610

Dr. Jan Porterfield
Spec Education Service Agency
2211-B Arca Drive
Anchorage AK 99508

J. Preston Prather
Univ of Tennessee at Martin
205 H Gooch Hall
Martin TN 38238

Dr. JoAnne W. Putnam
Univ of Maine at Farmington
UMF, 86 Main St, Merrill Hall
Farmington ME 04938

Bill J. Reynolds
Bowling Green State Univ
529 Education Building
Bowling Green OH 43403

Dr. Joseph Roberts
SERPP, School of Ed, SJS Univ
One Washington Square
San Jose CA 95192

Dr. Richard Rodriguez
Dept of Ed and Psychology
Western New Mexico Univ
Silver City NM 88061

Lee Ross
Greene County Technical
4633 West Kingshighway
Paragould AR 72450

Penny Royce
Nevada Dept. of Human Resources
480 Galletti Way
Sparks NV 89431

Charles L. Salzberg
Department of Special Education
Utah State University
Logan UT 84322-6500

Dr. Nanci Scheetz
North Florida Junior College
1000 Turner Davis Drive
Madison FL 32340

Lois Schwartz
Florida State Univ
209 Ed Bldg, Dept of Special Ed
Tallahassee FL 32306

Rhea Schwartz
Florida A & M Univ
GEC-B201 College of Educ
Tallahassee FL 32307

Ms. Sandra Jean Siddall
CSU-Chico
855 E. Lindo Avenue
Chico CA 95926

Sandra Silver
Paul Bunyan Elem School
L.S.D. #31
Bemidji MN 56601

Dr. Lee Siudzinski
Walworth Public School
121 Beloit St, P.O. Box 220
Walworth WI 53184

Deborah Smith
Utah State University
Dept of Special Education
Logan UT 84322-6500

Bonnie Smith-Dickson
Western Illinois University
Macomb Project, College of Ed
Macomb IL 61455

Kathleen Sollace
Dept of Educ/Special Educ Unit
120 State Street
Montpilier VT 05602

Robert Steinmiller
Ouachita Baptist Univ
410 Ouachita Box 3660
Arkadelphia AR 71923

Sandra Stuart-Siddall
California State Univ, Chico
1st St. and Normal Ave.
Chico CA 95929-0301

Richard Swanby
Trenton State College
Hillwood Lakes CN-4700
Trenton NJ 08650-4700

Dr. Linda P. Thurston
Rural Special Education Project
KSU - Bluemont Hall
Manhattan KS 66506

Len E. Tritsch
Ntnl School Health Ed Coalition
700 Pringle Parkway SE
Salem OR 97310

Ms. Nancy J. Walters
University of Tennessee-Martin
Gooch Hall, Room 205 H
Martin TN 38238

Patricia Welge
L S U Medical Center
1100 Florida Avenue
New Orleans LA 70119

Dr. Wemme E. Wells
Virginia Tech
103 Jackson St.
Blackburg VA 24061-2238

Dr. Jerry Wright
Northwest Missouri State Univ
Brown Hall 216
Maryville MO 64468

DR. ARNOLD HILLMAN

Dr. Arnold Hillman is a practicing rural educator. He is presently the Executive Director of the Riverview Intermediate Unit, a regional service agency serving seventeen school districts in northwestern Pennsylvania, and President of the Pennsylvania Association of Intermediate Units.

Dr. Hillman has a wealth of background and experience, holding a number of advanced degrees and having served in a variety of education and human services positions. He has been involved in both regular and special education, providing professional contributions at local and statewide levels.

TOM HUNTER

Tom Hunter is a folk singer-writer, educator, and minister who works with children and adults. Tom holds strong values regarding family and the use of music as a medium for expressive sharing. His tunes portray life as a celebration, with its variety of emotions.

Tom has provided performances in schools for children of all ages. He has offered workshops and has presented at conferences in an effort to share his talents with others as well as learn from the participants in an interactional manner. Tom's songs are available on record or tape, and in books.

E. JOSEPH SCHNEIDER

Joseph Schneider is the Executive Director for the Council for Educational Development and Research, a Washington-based national trade association known as CEDaR, and representing research universities and nonprofit institutions. Joe serves as the editor for the newsletter, CEDaR Comments, and as executive editor for the magazine, R & D Preview, both published by CEDaR. Additionally, he is an adjunct professior for the Department of Educational Leadership at Western Michigan University.

Joe has extensive experience in publishing, public information, and business administration at local and national levels.

ELIOT WIGGINTON

Eliot Wigginton has spent his entire career (beginning in 1966) teaching school at Rabun County, Georgia.

Now--for a very abbre ated list (since we would like to allow him some time to spe of Eliot's accomplishments originating from an environment of stable employment in rural America:

Foxfire Magazine, which Eliot started with his ninth- and tenth-graders in 1966, is still produced quarterly by English students at Rabun County High School. Nine volumes have been written for the Foxfire book series, and a newsletter, record albums, and books on special interest topics such as toys and games, cooking, and WINEMAKING (all in the Appalachian tradition) are available through the Foxfire Press. Eliot's book, Sometimes a Shining Moment, has received two prestigious awards--the Kappa Delta Pi Education Honorary Society Book-of-the-Year Award, and the W. D. Weatherford Award.

Eliot has appeared on television and radio programs. He has served on numerous boards, advisory councils, and task forces, including the National Endowment for the Humanities and the National Trust for Historic Preservation. He is a member of The National Faculty of Humanities, Arts, and Sciences, having received honorary doctorates from Columbia College, Bethany College, Georgia College, Duquesne University, and Maryville College.

Eliot has received many awards for his work with young people, including the John D. Rockefeller III Youth Award. In 1979, he was cited by Time Magazine as one of fifty people recognized for emerging national leadership.

There's much more--and all of this from a two-story log house that he designed and built himself.

1989 NRSSC Exemplary Rural and Small Schools Program Award Winners

Wardsville, Missouri

Saint Stanislaus School is a rural parochial school near Jefferson City which currently enrolls 183 students in Grades 1-8. The primary reason this accredited school exists is to provide a strong academic curriculum within a supportive faith community. The 116 families represented at Saint Stanislaus School live in three public school districts and three parish communities.

It is our goal to help to prepare the youngsters for adult Christian living. This goal permeates all the activities, programs, and curriculum.

Being a rural community has not discouraged dreaming of ways to increase interests and abilities of its young people. Some people may believe that a rural school has limited opportunities. We have chosen to capitalize on two rural characteristics: people working together and sound family values. These characteristics have also helped the students develop a strong academic foundation.

By tapping into the generous pool of local volunteers and dedicated faculty leadership, the school's educational programs have ballooned inspite of the limited financial resources. The parents' involvement and support in the youngster's education is evident by the almost 100% who are actively involved in School Board, Home & School Association and its committees of room parents, RIF, health, and sports, daily cafeteria assistance and playground supervision, and the Parent/Community drug awareness program.

The school's grass roots computer program is a concrete example of the community working together. The goal was to develop and implement a computer-assisted gifted student tutoring program for students in grades one to eight. Some of the objectives of the faculty and parents were these:

-to challenge the gifted junior high students;
-to elevate the achievement of elementary students;
-to develop a positive attitude toward learning;
-to prepare the youngsters for a technological society.

In 1984 the principal and a school board member researched the pros and cons of the available microcomputers. It was decided to develop a computer program using TRS-80 Color Computers in order to have more computers available to the youngsters. We elected to invest hours of volunteer labor developing our own curriculum-based courseware because very little educational software was available for the Color Computer 2. The Chapter 2 allotment was used to initiate the program with three Tandy Color 2 Computers for the seventh and eighth graders. Within two years, with the funds generated from Home and School projects, a Tandy Grant written by the faculty, and Chapter monies, twenty TRS-80

computers were added and put to use in the classrooms and library center.

The school board representative taught himself the Color Pilot Language and then gave classes for the teachers and interested parents. One parent continues to teach interested junior high students twice a week. Because the Color Pilot Language is simpler to use, the students experience success through creating science and mathematics software for youngsters in grades one through six. Once the junior high students are comfortable with the Color Pilot Language, learning Basic from an independent self-study unit developed by a parent is easy.

Eighth-grade students tutor the first-grade students on two classroom computers until they are able to operate the programs on their own. The eighth graders also serve as trouble shooters when a classroom computer or software is not functioning correctly. Greeting cards and banners made by students to brighten a day for parents, grandparents, teachers, and peers.

Dedicated parents and the principal held weekly evening work sessions throughout the 1985-1986 school year. They wrote programs and keyed data which is still being used to remediate, reinforce, and enrich the curriculum in mathematics, reading, science, social studies, spelling, and typing.

As the computer instruction program grew and developed the volunteer time from former graduates, parents, former parents, grandparents, and faculty was divided into categories:

-computer knowledge and expertise
-suggesting and providing curriculum input
-writing the subject matter and putting it on computer sheets
-typing in data and proofing it
-making computer tables and dust covers
-working with volunteers and gifted students
-developing and/or adapting curriculum programs from books and magazines

Parents can and have purchased the Color Computer 2 for their homes because the sale price is affordable to them. Youngsters can utilize the classroom software in their homes, since the curriculum materials are not copyrighted. Students have witnessed their motivation by developing computer-related Science and/or History Day Projects at home.

Besides capitalizing on the rural characteristic of working together, Saint Stanislaus has also built upon the fundamental family values of this rural area. The Gospel-based discipline program permits students to grow in self-discipline by making choices and accepting the consequences.

Students write individual goals to achieve academic gains and character growth every week. Regular goal writing and assessment helps the youngsters to incorporate religious and moral orientation into their daily living choices.

Student-parent-teacher conferences give students the opportunity to evaluate their goals with a parent and teacher present. As early as third grade the youngsters are involved in student-parent-teacher conferences. Students inneract with their teacher and parents in discussing not only the academic growth but also their Christian social development. These conferences affirm family support and family values.

In the classroom, the discipleship program is encouraged and taught using various activities to build self-esteem, self-concept, friendship, citizenship, respect, and responsibility. Some of these classroom activities include role-playing, skits, discussions, and personal reflection. For example, the goal to achieve the Gospel value of concern is evidenced when students whisper in the hall so as to show their concern for others who are in class.

The Rainbow for God's Children Program provides a support system for youngsters who are hurting from a death or divorce in their family. Students reach out to others through service projects such as making cards for birthdays and anniversaries and raking leaves for the elderly. Students also sing annually at the State Mental Hospital and make Christmas presents for the community's Over-50 Club members.

The parent community drug awareness program helps the students to understand the effects of drugs along with how to say "No" to peer pressure. Because of this outstanding effort in the war against drugs Saint Stanislaus School was selected visit from two representatives of the U.S. Department of Education. It was one of 105 schools and one of six parochial schools selected nationwide to receive a site visit in the department's first Drug-Free School Recognition Program. 86% of the fourth through eighth graders are members of the "Just Say No" club. Participants receive information on the dangers of drugs and alcohol as well as peer support for saying "No". Members make posters and present skits giving ways to reverse peer pressure such as walking away, changing the topic, and just saying "No".

A parent awareness group, composed of members from the three surrounding parishes sponsors educational opportunities regarding drug and alcohol abuse and effective parenting and community action. The Parent Awareness Group provides a drug and alcohol free atmosphere for local teens in the Teen Center which they created and staff in an available area of Saint Stanislaus School.

Saint Stanislaus also cooperates in the drug and alcohol program at the local public high school in Wardsville. There, students have organized Friends-U-Need (FUN) groups for support and education. FUN members present skits and talks to the Saint Stanislaus students each quarter. Elementary grade youngsters tend to believe that it is acceptable to say "No" to drugs when they hear that advice from high school students.

The students' interests and abilities have benefited from utilizing the rural strengths of people working together and the sound family value base. The students' academic achievement has grown consistently with class averages ranging from 0.17 to 2.1 years above expected norms on standardized tests. The students' individual accomlishments are also reflected through the 281 ribbons, plaques, prizes, and certificates received in speech meets, poetry contests, music competition, science fair projects, posters contests, history day projects, spelling bees, local Math. relays, and essay contests during the past school year. In addition to class projects the principal privately invites individual students with unique talents to participate in specialized areas such as in poetry and art contests. Saint Stanislaus School is fully accredited by the Missouri Chapter, National Federation of Non-Public School State Accrediting Associations.

Saint Stanislaus is an example of a rural school which has a strong academic curriculum and which challenges its students to use their personal talents and abilities. It is a rural community with sound family values where people work together to provide unlimited learning opportunities within a supportive faith community.

FRANKLIN NORTHEAST SUPERVISORY UNION

Office of Superintendent of Schools

RICHFORD, VERMONT

05476

BAKERSFIELD TOWN SCHOOL DISTRICT
BERKSHIRE TOWN SCHOOL DISTRICT

ENOSBURG FALLS GRADED SCHOOL DISTRICT

MONTGOMERY TOWN SCHOOL DISTRICT
RICHFORD TOWN SCHOOL DISTRICT

Teacher Associate Program (TAP)
Franklin Northeast Supervisory Union
P.O. Box 130
Richford, Vermont 05476

Contact Persons: Raymond J. McNulty, Superintendent of Schools
802/848-7888
Judith Ouellette, Principal
802/827-6611

Teacher Associate Program

When a student arrives at a new school, or when a child enters school for the first time, the educational community places significant attention on how that student assimilates into this new culture. The teacher generally assigns a "veteran student" the task of giving the new kid a tour, arrange for the veteran to look out on the playground for the new classmate, plans for a lunch mate, some teachers even go as far as suggesting after school activities. All of this is done not just to welcome this new student, much of it is to build successful understanding of what this new environment is like. The teacher's focus is not limited to academic's, attention is paid to the <u>whole child.</u>

In a profession so sensitive to the needs of children, we so often have overlooked the needs of the people who provide such a nurturing environ- ment. How we welcome new educators into our schools is indicative of our professional health. Most new teachers orientation programs are focused on administrivia, the mundane paperwork, forms to be filled out and new teacher speeches by the central office staff. New teachers are generally left to fit in on their own. Veteran staff members know little if anything about their new associates. Dialogue between new and veteran teachers is generally a hit and miss situation, and with the schedule a new staff mem-ber faces, little idle time is available for such important contacts.

The needs of a new teacher extend beyond the basic information such as what is expected for grading, which people really have control of supplies and how to I get my desk drawer open! For many, it's their first job away from their college life. It's moving a family into a new area, finding a home or apartment in a nice community.

These needs are particularly acute for teachers relocating to rural schools and communities. Rural schools occupy a more prominent position and play a greater role in their communities than do their suburban and urban cousins. Rural schools are often the largest employers in the community; they are usually the largest building (s) and comprise the largest part of the local budget. Staffs are very visible in the rural community. They are "models" in and out of the work place. However, where profess- ional development is concerned, their relatively large size within the community does not extend beyond the community. The likelihood that a sufficient number of staff will have the same developmental needs at the same time rarely occurs. These opportunities are seldom offered locally, because it is not cost-effective to do so. Distance to centers which offer professional training is a dissuading factor.

It is for the above reasons that rural schools and communities must develop the means to better assimilate their new teachers and to provide professional development opportunities for veteran teachers.

One exciting element of most professions is the site of passage, the orientation, initiation, transition provided for professionals by fellow professionals, it is this very element that the Franklin Northeast Super-visory Union Teacher Associate Program has provided.

As one newcomer stated in his evaluation, "It made me feel like part of a team. It turned my apprehension into enthusiasm and answered alot of im- portant questions."

The "Teacher Associate Program" is a project which involves not only giving, but receiving and growing as well. It also addresses the concern of newcomers and stimulates a fellowship in the teaching profession. It is one step toward fulfilling the public's demand for excellence in education.

TEACHER ASSOCIATE PROGRAM (TAP)

How we welcome new students to our schools is indicative of our educational health. Students are frequently transfering in and out of our schools, and it is widely recognized in the literature that a student's emotional needs and self-image exercise powerful sway over his academic achievements. Most schools take great pride in how they orient new students into the main line of their systems. Yet it is almost embarassing that a system so focused on nurturing pays such little attention to its professional colleagues.

The situation described above is the main reason the schools in the Franklin Northeast Supervisory Union, a rural school district of 1700 students located on the Canadian border in north central Vermont, developed a project called the Teacher's Associate Program (TAP).

Designed to fill a void, the primary focus of the program is to help acclimate, orient, and establish both veteran and new teachers within the culture of our school district. These project goals can be linked back to King Arthur and Merlin's efforts to establish the famous "Knights of the Round Table." They imparted a dream to simply unite their kingdom, consolidate the brightest minds and increase the lot. If ever there was a need similiar to this in our profession it is now!

The unique aspect of the TAP project is that it dispels the belief that many mentorship programs hold, that knowledge is held by those with experience in the system. We believe that a merging of the professionals, both new and veteran, results in a powerful force that melds the craft and science of teaching. TAP efforts are more symmetrical in that involvement requires not just giving and receiving but, the balance of both.

The design of TAP reflects several important assumptions about teacher development. First it assumes that teacher performance is of critical importance to student learning. Second, it assumes that teachers, as professionals, can and should improve their on-the-job performance, and that they are willing to make commitment to professional growth. Third, wanting to perform better each year is one thing, having opportunity or support for improvement is quite another. It is becoming steadily clearer that substantially improving one's teaching on one's own is an extraordinary accomplishment. The advancement of one's teaching is necessarily a partnership between the teacher and someone who is equipped to share, collaborate, analyize and communicate knowledgeable information about the full spectrun of the job. Such a partnership will benefit not only the teaching, but the fruitful development of the school culture. These assumptions were critical factors in the development of this program.

In the beginning, potential volunteer participants were identified by building level administrators. This process is consistent with our district philosophy concerning the implementation of any new program. We believe in stacking the deck with the best teachers possible in order to get the most out of your efforts. If the project or program is good enough it will continue to grow on its own after initial implementation.

After the staff was selected, the project director outlined the activities for five thematic workshops. They were designed with a socialization component, and critically timed to address issues prior to events. (Example: tivities involving parent-teacher conferences were scheduled two weeks prior to the event.) The five thematic workshops included sessions on the following topics:

I. Orientation

- A. Introduction of new teachers, veteran teachers and administrators
- B. District Philosophy
- C. Roles and functions of special services
- D. Questions

II. Curriculum

- A. Format - curriculum webbing
- B. Grouping - cooperative learning
- C. Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement Research (T.E.S.A.)

III. Parent Communications

- A. Disadvantaged, minority and rural populations and "needs" to be aware of when conferencing with parents
- B. Migrant Education and their role as home/school coordinators
- C. Recent research on the elements of effective parent/teacher conferences

IV. Problem Solving

- A. Five issues and concerns cited by new teachers
- B. A problem-solving model
- C. Cooperative learning group format

V. Evaluation

- A. Panel of district administrators to discuss styles which promote professional growth
- B. Future trends in evaluation
- C. TAP effectiveness and suggestions for program improvement

The workshops were held in area restaurants. This takes new and veteran staff to and through a number of communities. Fostering a feel for the lay of the land (sense of geography), and provides topics for questions or remarks pertaining to natural and man-made landmarks. The presenters were local community resources who shared their expertise and experiences on a variety of topics. Some of the presenters included the migrant education instructor and the director of Indian Education.

The workshops and an area-wide community survey were utilized to develop a Community-School Resource Guide. This survey invited businesses and individuals to participate in the schools through field trips, demonstrations, lectures, and sharing of literary resources. As such, the guide is a handy reference tool which enables the professionals to access local community resources and foster educational links between the schools and their communities.

TAP is complimented by a Staff Wellness Program. Together the TAP and Wellness programs provide a wholistic approach to staff development. What TAP does for individual intellectual and professional growth, the Wellness Program does for physical and emotional (stress reduction), health. Both provide important opportunities for social interaction, which is a factor in integrating staff into the schools and communities. The essential premise of both programs is fostering district and personal self-development.

The program, now in its second full year, has evolved to a point where the leadership and focus are truly teacher directed. The project director now needs only to provide guidelines for the sessions. Teachers then formulate the needs, research the topics and plan the location, time, menu, final agenda and evaluation.

Formal workshops are an essential component of staff development. However, it is the time away from these meetings that has resulted in the additional success sometimes missing in the regular one day quick fix inservice sessions. The coaching, sharing, team teaching and additional interaction between professionals has lead to the competitive edge that our homegrown TAP project has provided our staff. These are a few of the comments participants made in their final project evaluation:

> "It made me feel like part of a team. It turned apprehension into enthusiasm and answered a lot of important questions."
>
> "I no longer feel alone. It's nice knowing part of my support network and knowing that people understand."

We have all learned through this program that there is no magic formula or commercially prepared product that can lead our schools toward fulfilling the public's demand for excellence. It is the teacher not the computer, consultant, or textbook, that is the catalyst to all our children's learning. Our schools are true learning communities for adults and children alike, and with that focus we hold a promise for the future of all.

SUMMARY - ARNETTSVILLE HAPPY SCHOOL

THE ARNETTSVILLE HAPPY SCHOOL IS A NEW CENTER THAT OFFERS CARE, SUPPORT, AND EDUCATION FOR PARENTS AND THEIR CHILDREN.

FOR THE CHILDREN:

The Children's Room provides a safe and fun place for making friends and for learning. Children's activities include creative play and social interaction, language and pre-academic skill development, health and hygiene, physical development (both large muscles and fine coordination), music, books, and arts and crafts. The Happy School helps prepare children for kindergarten, so that they will have a happier and more successful school experience.

FOR THE MOTHERS

The Mother's Program offers discussions, films, guest speakers, and book studies about child development and parenting skills, as well as, some topics of general interest and some just for fun. Mothers are the child's first and most effective teachers, yet they receive very little credit for their work and almost no training for it. This program helps mothers develop better parenting skills. At the same time, they can develop a new circle of friends to serve as a support group.

Mothers will also be making some toys and educational and craft materials for the Children's Room and will have projects for Mother and child to do at home which will help develop school readiness skills.

The Arnettsville Happy School

The Arnettsville Happy School is based in a rural area of Monongalia County, West Virginia and seeks to provide informational and emotional support to parents and a nursery school experience for young children in the area. The program shares several objectives in common with other parent education programs throughout the state as follows:

1. To increase parent's knowledge base of a broad range of topics related to child rearing (i.e., developmental stages, nutrition, sexuality).

2. To increase the parent's ability to communicate effectively with their family members.

3. To increase parent's self esteem and confidence in the parenting role by validating their strengths and capacity for caring.

4. To provide knowledge about and practice in implementing a positive approach to discipline and behavior management.

5. To expose parents to different levels of education other than the familiar community expectations.

The nursery school for the three and four year olds and the education/support group are the two interacting components of the Arnettsville Happy School. The children similarly have objections that parallel other types of pre-school programs:

1. To increase young childrens self esteem and confidence by providing a warm and caring classroom environment.

2. To increase young rural children's knowledge and information about the world through play and structured interaction with teachers, parents and other children.

3. To increase the possibility that children will have positive school experiences by providing a stimulating environment.

The Happy School was held two mornings a week for two hours at a local senior citizens center for two years but presently is located at the Arnettsville Elementary School. Parents and children meet on the same two mornings per week. Mothers enrolling their children in the fall term learn that attending the Parent's Group two mornings a week is a expectation for all families whose children attend the pre-school.

The teacher of the Parent's Group is provided by the Monongalia County Board of Education in cooperation with the Adult Education Program and tuition is free to the parent. The nursery school is directed by a community volunteer and by student social workers and student teachers from West Virginia University. The student social workers also recruited families for the program by making home visitations in the fall. Therefore, there has been little or no cost to the children enrolled in the program thus far.

Some topics included in the Parent's Group are;

1. Helping children to cope with Fears" 2. Positive Parenting the importance of Child's Play" 3. Dental Health 4. Children's Health and safety at Home". The parents have the opportunity of planning

parties and field trips for the children's schedule, as well. The teacher frequently outlines what needs to be done, but then leaves the rest of the planning to the group leadership that naturally arises.

The pre-school program includes activities that are directed toward teaching good health habits, dental hygiene and social skills. Basic pre-school skills such as recognizing colors, numbers and the child's own name are also taught.

The pre-school program also includes a kindergarten visitation day. The parents and the children have an opportunity to become acquainted with the local community school and the staff.

The Monongalia County Vocational Center provides materials and resources for the adults in the Parent's Group. However, the materials for the children have been provided by other community groups. A local settlement house donated toys and furniture for the children and three or four church groups have provided gifts at Christmas and Easter for the children.

An Economic Education Grant was developed to supply teaching materials for both parents and children and the Monongalia County Health Department provide speakers, as well as free health kits for both adults and children.

The Happy School has met a stated need within the rural community of Arnettsville of serving both the parents and the children. It has helped open up their lives and to create a cohesive understanding among parent, child, school and community.

National Rural and Small Schools Consortium (NRSSC)
Western Washington University
School of Education/Miller Hall 359
Bellingham, WA 98225
(206) 676-3576
© September 1987

NOMINATION FORM

1988 NATIONAL AWARDS FOR EXEMPLARY RURAL AND SMALL SCHOOL PROGRAMS

PROGRAM NOMINATOR:

Superintendent	Anna	Mae	Pino
Title	First Name		Last Name

Position: Superintendent of School

Institution/Agency: Pine Hill Schools

Address: Drawer H

City: Pine Hill State: New Mexico Zip: 87357

Business Phone: 505-775-3256/3257 Home Phone: _____

Please describe how the nominator is associated/familiar with program nominee. (Please limit to 25 words).

Ms. Anna Mae Pino has been associated with Pine Hill School as an administrator for eleven years. The Excellence in Writing Program began in 1983 and has flourished for the last five years.

I certify that the information contained in this nomination form is accurate to the best of my knowledge, and the program contact person has reviewed and verified all information contained herein.

Anna Mae Pino
Signature of Nominator

March 31, 1988
Date

****

Nomination Form - Page 2

EXEMPLARY PROGRAM NOMINEE

Title of Nominated Program: Pine Hill School's Excellence in Writing Program

Program Contact: Chapter I Program (Title) Sena (First Name) Fitzpatrick (Last Name)

Position: Chapter I Teacher/Coordinator

Institution/Agency: Pine Hill Schools

Address: Drawer H

City: Pine Hill State: New Mexico Zip: 87357

Business Phone: 505-775-3242/3243 Home Phone:

Sena Fitzpatrick
Signature of Program Contact

March 31, 1988
Date

****

6. Please describe the goals, objectives, and specific activities of this program. (Please limit to 500 words.)

Pine Hill School is located on the Ramah Navajo Reservation in a remote rural area of northwestern New Mexico. Pine Hill School has an enrollment of 390 Navajo students who speak English as a second language.

The goal of the Pine Hill Schools' Excellence in Writing Program is to improve the quality of Navajo students' writing in terms of fluency, clarity, correctness, and maturity as scored on a holistic writing evaluation. It combines the wordprocessing technology on microcomputers with writing process instruction to form a methodology of writing instruction that will be successful with Native Americans.

The instructional model of the program has four main parts:

1. The Writing Process as a method of teaching writing skills and strategies within the structure of a comprehensive K-12 Language Arts Curriculum

2. A microcomputer writing lab in which students use wordprocessing technology to write and to learn writing skills in the context of communicating what they have to say.
3. A cultural journalism project in which students interview community members and publish articles based on these interviews in a nationally circulating magazine.
4. An assessment procedure specifically designed to measure gains in writing ability and students' growth as writers.

The Pine Hill Excellence in Writing Program is integrated into the schools'language arts curriculum. It is designed for use in elementary, middle and high schools. Two developments in writing instruction in the past several years are combined in the Pine Hill Excellence in Writing Program: word -processing on microcomputers and the process model of writing instruction. The Pine Hill Language Arts Curriculum covers kindergarten through 12th grade, and students in all grades at Pine Hill work on the writing process. Additionally, students in grades 4 through 12 use computers to write, revise, edit, and publish their work. Word -processing allows students to do cutting and pasting on their writing electronically instead of with scissors and tape. The process model immerses students in the creation of texts so they can "learn how to write by writing." Students at all grade levels select topics, do prewriting activities, write drafts, revise their writing, edit and publish it.

Students in grades 4 through 12 do many of these writing activities on the computers. To publish their work, students make books, prepare written materials for bullentin boards, write articles for the school newspaper and the school's magazine, Tsa'Aszi', which chronicles Navajo culture and history primarily through oral histories from community elders.

Combining writing process instruction and computer word -processing adds motivation for students to work more on their writing. Revising and editing are not easy, but word -processors make the mechanics of revising and editing easier. In addition, publishing adi a reason for students to get their writing into final form. When students are writing more and learning writing skills in the context of communicating what they want to say, they make gains in the fluency, clarity, correctness, and maturity of their writing. There are two monitoring and evaluation procedures Pine Hill uses besides the CTBS tests. One is informal and the other is formal. Within the Language arts curriculum, specific skills and levels of achievement are outlined for each grade level. This contains a system of record-keeping and evaluation which allows teachers to keep track of the progress of individual students. This system shows how successfully goals are being met, and keeps students working on assignments that are productive and that contain challenging and realistic expectations. The formal evaluation consists of collecting writing samples at the beginning and the end of the year from Pine Hill students and from students at a control school. The writing samples are evaluated for fluency, clarity, correctness, and maturity using holistic scoring methods, and those from Pine Hill are compared to the control groups's to see which group is making the most gains in their writing.

7. What rural or small school issue does this program address (e.g. small staff, limited resources, etc.)? (Please limit to 50 words.

The isolation of the school and the limited resources that were available as appropriate learning materials for use with Native American students for language acquisition, encouraged Pine Hill school staff to search for methodologies and materials to be used in the schools' languages arts program. Based on the psycholinguistic approach to language acquisition and development as outlined by language researchers including Goodman & Goodman, Graves, Calkins, Harste and Burke, the school implemented the Language Arts program that is based on two key principles:

10. What specific evaluative/research data are available that corroborate the high quality of this program. (Please limit to 150 words.)

The Pine Hill Excellence in Writing Program is based on the pyscholinguistic approach to language acquisition and development as outlined by language researchers including Kenneth and Yetta Goodman, Donald Graves, Lucy Calkins, Jerome Harste and Carolyn Burke. This approach, also known as the whole language approach. Dr. Teresa Rosegrant, developer of the Talking Screen Textwriter (TSTW) was piloted at Pine Hill School for reading instruction.

Documentation of the project's success is still being completed. Initial results suggest that students are making the best gains on the CTBS in language mechanics, language expression, and reading comprehension.

A study conducted during the 1985-86 school term by the project coordinator, Robert Hymer, comparing Pine Hill students with students from a similar rural school demonstrated significant writing improvement in Pine Hill students compared to the control group. Pine Hill students showed an increase in writing ability particularly at the upper grade levels. By the 8th grade, students were performing at a significant higher level. A follow-up study is planned for the end of this school term.

11. What limitations does this program present and what problems would be inherent if it were implemented in another setting? (Please limit to 150 words.)

The major problems the project has had to deal with are staff turnover and funding loss. Because of the isolated and rural nature of the Ramah Navajo community, many teachers leave after a few years. Since the project is not a textbook formula, all of the training leaves with the staff. Currently, the administration is attempting to recruit staff with compatible experience and training which is tremendous aid. Establishing a written curriculum guide with grade level expectations and competencies has also been an attempt to better structure the project's goals. Pre-service training on how to use this curriculum guide was done at the beginnning of the last school year. The school has also purchased some teacher training video tapes ("The Authoring Cycle" by Jerome Harste of Indiana University) and an after school teacher "study group" is offered by a master teacher. A core group of teachers are also an excellent resource for incoming staff and have been more than willing to share their expertise.

Reductions in funding are discouraging because the school is unable to bring in consultants and offer on-going workshops. New materials and software are beyond the finances of the project. Publication of the cultural magazine requires stable funding in order to maintain stable circulation and subscriptions.

All elements of the program are transportable. Any school can set up a computer writing lab and adopt the writing process model for writing instruction. Pine Hill's curriculum can be adapted by schools or adopted as is. Publication of student work, including a school magazine, can also be done in any area. Cultural journalism and oral history projects like Tsa' Aszi' have sprung up in rural settings throughout the country. All communities have rich cultural and historical traditions that students can learn and write about.

12. Please describe the specific sources of funding for this program, including cost effective measures the program has employed. (Please limit to 125 words.)

Costs for computer hardware will depend on the number of computers the school already has. The approximate cost for an Apple IIe computer with 128 of memory and a printer is $1500. About $500 will be needed for word-processing software, $2000 for teacher training, $1000 for materials and supplies, $1000 for publishing each issue of the schools' magazine, and $20,000 for the computer lab instructor. If the school has no computers, initial costs will be $47,000 or $104.00 per student. Maintenance costs would be about $22,000 per year for the computer lab instructor, publishing costs, and materials and supplies or $48.88 per student. All of the above figures are based on 15 computers for 450 students.

SOURCES AND LEVELS OF FUNDING:

Period	Funds	Sources
1983-84	$ 6,000	Pine Hill Schools
1984-85	$ 88,000	Department of Education
1985-86	$ 116,978	Department of Education
1986-87	$ 25,000	Pine Hill Schools
1987-88	$ 22,000	Pine Hill Schools

13. Additional Supportive Documentation:

Please describe below any additional information/documentation that enhances the overall quality of this program. (Publications, awards and honors, unique characteristics, innovative strategies, etc.). (Please limit to 500 words.)

Pine Hill's Excellence in Writing Project has been attracting attention from educators throughout the Southwest in the past several years. Teachers and administrators from schools (including BIA and non-Indian) come to visit all during the school term to learn about Pine Hill's methodology and success in language arts instruction. Staff from Pine Hill have also been recruited to present at many conferences and workshops regionally and nationally. In the past two years staff have presented workshops at the following conferences: National Council of Teachers of English (Phoenix, AZ), Office Educational Research and Improvement's Rural Education Symposium (Washington D. C.), International Reading Association (New Mexico), New Mexico Computer Users in Education (New Mexico), Language and Literacy Seminar (Tucson, AZ), North Central Asscciation conference (New Mexico), Montana and others.

The New Mexico State Department of Education recognized Pine Hill's project at an annual awards luncheon for outstanding state educational programs.

The Tsa Aszi Navajo cultural magazine has an international subscription list and is cited by Elliot Wigginton of Rabun Gap's Foxfire Foundation as being an outstanding example of cultural journalism. Tsa Aszi Provides a wonderful link into the Ramah Navajo community, at once both documenting traditions and valuing them; providing a rich conneciton between the community elders and young people.

Another unique and innovative element of the Excellence in Writing Project is the use of a new nationally known softward program, the Talking Textwriter. Pine Hill piloted the Talking Textwriter when it was first developed, using it successfully with elumentary students who were having difficulty in developing language and literacy skills. The Talking Textwriter is a wordprocessing program that has a speech component. Students can hear their writing read back to them and also read texts created by other students that they might not otherwise be able to read independently. With the renewed confidence given to them by this special learning tool, students quickly become willing to take risks at other reading and writing tasks, thereby moving up the scale of language proficiency.

SUPER STUDENT: A BIG BROTHER/BIG SISTER PROGRAM THAT WORKS!

"SUPER STUDENT" _ WINNING THE GAME CALLED SCHOOL, a study skills program that builds self-esteem/self-concept, is designed to make students the winners in schools. This program is enhanced and supported with business/education partnerships.

In the Green Sea Floyds/Daisey Elementary Schools of Horry County, John Chanaca, Elementary counselor, has developed a study skills program with a systematic approach in developing self-esteem and self-concept for the K-5 child. Students are trained to focus on five basic concepts which encourages them to become responsible for their own learning. These concepts focus on effort, personal growth and sharing. In turn they develop self-esteem in students and a positive self-concept when teachers emphasize these components in the classroom.

In the third, fourth or fifth grades, the natural progression of this program leads into a peer-teaching situation which further developes sharing and re-teaching of the basic concepts with students teaching students. In addition, basic drill in reading, math, and language arts is accomplished. This peer-teaching situation is called the Super Student, Big Brother/Big Sister Program. Over 230 fourth graders are working with 250 second graders in the two elementary buildings.

These students who have been studying skills which will make them better students, share what they know. They visit a "little brother/sister" in a lower grade classroom for thirty minutes, once a week for twelve weeks. Wearing "Super Student" tee shirts which have been purchased by the PTO and armed with their folders and library books, these students are now ready to help a younger child with reading, math-fact drill, vocabulary and spelling. In addition, they teach the five basic concepts which they were taught to use as "Super Students". With the teachers' cooperation, this buddy system is fully supervised and monitored by the staff. The older students have an opportunity to feel good about helping younger students and be empathetic with teachers and the job they do in the classroom. Students must earn their own tee shirts weekly to stay in the Big Brother/Big Sister Program by being Super Students in their class.

Key concepts that they must focus on include: 1) winners and losers, 2) body language, 3) active listening, 4) beating the work (preparation), and 5) super neatness (organization).

The Super Student Program concentrates on owning your own behavior, developing control, balance and power in your life, and being responsible. One central theme is "School does not do to you, to do to yourself!"

Beside the academic improvement for both younger student and the Big Brother/Sister healthy social interaction from sharing, self-esteem/ concept growth because of earning the right to a super student, and positive peer pressure, it is the student's attitude that improves. The ability to help and share builds the student's self-esteem.

The Super Student Program has conducted student and teacher surveys which have been extremely positive. It has been observed by curriculum coordinators, principals, Central office administrators, and substance abuse coordinators through out the state. In addition this program has been chosen to be presented at the South Carolina Counselors Association fall 1987 convention in Charleston and the combined North and South Carolina Counselors convention in Myrtle Beach Jan. 1988. Then in June it was presented on a national level at the ASCA National Elementary Counselors Convention in Breckenridge Colorado. It has been selected as a model program for business/education partnerships in South Carolina, June 1988.

In addition, the program has been presented to the school board, elementary and middle school principasl in the county and elementary and middle school counselors in the county.

A team of educators representing the Southern Association for Colleges and Schools (SACS) during their recent evaluation had many positive comments about the program.

The make up of the student population is interesting to note. Sixty one percent of the parents are married, eighteen percent are single, twelve percent are separated, seven percent are divorced and two percent are widowed. This affects the school program in that many pupils lack sufficient role models, income and supervision. The lack of supervision hinders the enforcement of the homework policy. The Super Student Program has helped with this problem. Twenty-two percent of the families

represented by the pupils are welfare recipients. The Federal Food Stamp Program supplements the income of many families. Sixty-seven percent of the pupils receive free meals while twenty-four percent receive meals at a reduced rate.

Because of the nature of the children in this area (many are poor. no positive role models, their social skills are not well defined), the students get excited about a program that allows them to show off their shirts as Super Students, carry folders to help younger children, and earn incentive awards that thank them for being good in class. In addition they look forward to the peer teaching situation weekly to engage in the social contact the Super Student Program affords them. To these students, school is where the action is taking place. The rallys, motivational speakers, field trips and excitement weekly that the program generates makes the students want to come to school and participate. For many of them it is the first time they have set goals, owned their own behavior, or felt good about themselves.

The "Super Student" program has lent itself to numerous business/education partnerships. More that $8,000.00 worth of incentive awards were donated by participating businesses.

As business recognizes students who display winning attitudes in school, their advertising dollars can provide incentives to their present and future consumers who will remember their contribution to their education.

City government formed a business partnership with the two elementary schools by providing a Mayor's Day. "A Salute to the Super Students in the Big Brother/Big Sister Program". The Mayor of Loris, S. C. provided an educational field trip with hot dogs, hamburgers and pizza for lunch.

The Super Student concept has provided the elementary and middle school with the vehicle for ideal business/government partnerships. This model program has demonstrated that business as well as students in their community can benefit form win/win partnerships.

John Chanaca
Green Sea Floyds Elementary School
P. O. Box 148
Green Sea, S. C. 29545

Western Oregon State College
Rural Special Education Training Program

The words, "Who Dares To Teach Must Never Cease To Learn," are inscribed on one of the oldest buildings on the campus of Western Oregon State College. They reflect not only Western's commitment to teaching but also its commitment to effective evaluation and research.

The main purpose of the Rural Special Education Program at Western has been to train rural educators to identify the needs of children with handicapping conditions and to meet their needs within the rural community. As a result of the training program, these specialists are able to develop new resources in rural communities, serve the needs of all children in their neighborhood school, regardless of their handicapping conditions, and understand the cultural diversity found in rural communities in Oregon. Graduates have been trained also in consultation strategies, computer skills, cross cultural implications, and stress reduction techniques.

The key to the success of the Rural Special Education Program at Western is their use of field input. From the early design of the program, to the development of the curriculum, and finally to the continued refinement of the program, decisions are made on the basis of information provided by rural administrators, teachers, parents, and students in the program . Whether it is a pretest-posttest information regarding student performance, the selection of competencies, the effectiveness of graduates as measured by employers, or demographic information such as nature of the school population, students served, or rural resources created, the project looks to data as a means for making decisions.

As a result of this commitment to excellence, over the past eight years the program has graduated 225 students who collectively serve approximately 7,000 children and youth each day. Graduates of Western's Rural Special Education Program serve children in seven western states and twenty-nine counties in Oregon. The faculty have placed 100% of those completing the program. Two hundred nineteen students are employed in rural districts. Six students have taken jobs in an urban school district that is implementing the consultant model. Five percent of the graduates have changed positions and those that have changed moved to other rural areas.

A pretest-posttest procedure was conducted each year to assess the competency level of students as well as to assess leadership style, communication style, and attitudes toward mainstreaming. Statistical differences have been found at the .01 level. Follow-up data after one year on the job indicated that employers rate graduates at the highest levels of effectiveness.

In an effort to share the staff's perception about the process of developing a rural special education preservice training program, the faculty wrote a set of thirteen modules which were distributed to thirty sites which included colleges, universities, and multi-district units from Maine to California. They have had an extremely favorable response and will be distributed by ACRES in the future.

Through its data and evaluation plans the Rural Special Education Program at Western is living proof that the words "Who Dares To Teach Must Never Cease To Learn" are as alive today as they were over one hundred years ago.

The Way Off Broadway Deli

St. Pauls City Schools
St. Pauls, N.C. 28384

Summary

St. Pauls, North Carolina is a rural community of less than 1800 residents located in the sparsely populated south central part of the state. The local economy is largely supported by Burlington Mills, an internationally recognized textile conglomerate. Their two factories employ about 800 people; others rely on agriculture and other area textile or food processing plants.

The area would be generally classified a low socio-economically, with an ethnic population of 44% black, 44% white and 12% American Indian. The local school system qualifies for higher than state average federal aid. Of the 142 school systems in North Carolina, Robeson County, where St. Pauls is located, ranks 139th in its ability to support education from local funding.

As Dr. Thomas Paquin, Superintendent of St. Pauls City Schools, assessed these realities in 1985, he saw the need to promote community involvement, encourage extra-curricular participation, reduce the dropout rate and provide real life learning experiences - all on a lean budget. His vision spawned the idea of a school based enterprise - one which was tailored to local realties, integrated into the school curriculum and designed to function as a student-staffed "business incubator". Two years of careful planning and hard work later, the "Way Off Broadway Deli" opened its doors.

Getting there took time, thought and tenacity. One of the initial steps in the planning process involved bringing together fellow educators, businessmen, community leaders and students to determine what type of business would succeed in this small rural community. A marketing survey was conducted by thirty-five students in 1985. The results indicated that Interstate 95, which passes by the town, was a major untapped resource; 22,500 vehicles pass St. Pauls daily travelling the New York to Miami route. The students decided that a New York syle delicatessen, to be located in a vacant restaurant building near the highway, stood the best chance for success. Such a venture held promise to be financially viable as well as educationally sound.

A Board of Directors was formed and students prepared a business plan for the local board of education. After their approval was granted and their support secured (they purchased the building for the deli-to-be), the plan went into effect. What began as an idea would become a reality.

Students, faculty and volunteers spent months cleaning, remodeling and decorating the vacant building.

The students, along with the Superintendent and Board of Directors, then hired an experienced manager (full time). Selected students, along with the manager, then traveled to New York City to intern at J. J. Applebaums, an authentic New York style deli. In July of 1987 the "Way Off Broadway Deli" opened with a fine selection of meats, cheeses and salads.

As a result of the Deli project St. Pauls High School's vocational education curriculum began offering courses to supplement the hands on experiences gained at the deli. Students are now offered courses in small business management, applied economics and entrepreneurship, all of which stem from the primary goal of the venture, that of teaching students entrepreneurial skills by giving them a chance to start and run a business. Not only are students employed, but they are motivated, showing healthy attitudes toward work and responsibility, learning interpersonal and communication skills, actively involved teamwork and feeling the satisfaction of a job well done.

The concept of the "Way Off Broadway Deli" is to provide real life experiences for those students participating. It is not a textbook activity. The students are learning by actually doing all phases of work; the position of assistant manager rotates among the students enabling each of them to become familiar with the deli's operation. They are taking the responsibility to assess, plan, and develop a concept and to see it through to becoming a reality. By utilizing the resources available through the schools, the risks are minimized. The end results benefit the students intellectually and economically while helping the economic growth of the community. All of this benefits the school.

The most unique feature of this school based enterprise is that it meets a local need and is based upon the resources obtainable. The needs assessment, feasibility plans, and the resulting business plan require this. The project is a "custom tailored" activity that generates support from many different areas. It is necessary to point out that ample time for planning be provided to insure the project's success. The St. Pauls project actually began in the fall of 1985 and the business plan was implemented during the summer of 1987. Many hours of work went into the preparation for the opening of the "Way Off Broadway Delicatessen".

The "Way Off Broadway Deli" went from an idea to a reality because of a strong commitment from all participants and assistance from both the public and private sector.

Journal of Rural and Small Schools

CATEGORY: CROSS CULTURAL SERVICES

Integration of American Indian Studies

Todd County School District
Box 87
Mission, South Dakota 57555

SUMMARY

The Todd County School District is located in south central South Dakota and its boundaries are concurrent with the borders of the Rosebud Sioux Indian Reservation. Consequently, over 90% of the district's student population is Sioux Indian, making it one of the country's largest, if not the largest, public schools serving American Indian students.

Todd County School District is perhaps one of the most unique and innovative public schools in this country. In 1986, major revisions of the Indian Studies program were initiated by the parents, school board and administrators. Working from the concept that the classroom culture must reflect and validate the identity of all students the Indian Studies program will make Indian Studies an integral part of this district's curriculum in all subject areas and levels K through 12. Integration of Indian Studies will address the special and unique needs of a school district that has a student population that is overwhelmingly Native American.

The project addresses the unique cultural environment of the rural Indian reservation. In this environment the Indian population tends to be more culturally oriented than Indians who live in a urban or suburban locations. In the school environment, as in nearly every public school in the United States, the curriculum and pedagogy is directed toward non-Indian, middle-class students. The Native American Indian child feels caught in the middle of two distinctly different cultures. Teachers are often not aware of the cultural conflict of being Indian in a non-Indian school environment. Many of the behaviors and values expressed in the school conflict with what the Indian child learns at home. To ensure equal educational opportunity and effective teaching methods, the goals are to become familiar with the cultural values and backgrounds of our students. In reality we are developing effective practices in Indian Education.

Historically, the goal of education was to assimilate the Native American child into mainstream America. The result of this goal was that the American Indian role in

American history and society was either neglected or distorted. The integration of Indian Studies has improved rapport and opened an avenue of interaction between the Indian community and local school community. By involving the community in the educational process this program is combating the negative feelings and suspicion of education that has been generated over the years. Parents are looking toward education as a way to gain the skills and knowledge to improve the tribe's resources. The involvement of parents, students and teachers in the curriculum planning, development, implementation, and evaluation is contributing to the success of this project.

The primary goals of the Integration of Indian Studies into the curriculum are:

1) To establish Indian Studies as an integral and meaningful complement to the regular instructional program.
2) To provide all students with knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of the American Indian culture and heritage.

Short range goals and objectives were developed for the first year to create an effective plan for integrating Indian Studies. A timeline to ensure progress and direction in the integration of Indian Studies was also developed. The timeline is reviewed and revised annually. A needs assessment survey was developed and distributed to the teaching staff of Todd County School District. The purpose of the survey addressed concerns with respect to curriculum planning, development, implementation and evaluation. The survey was designed to assess the needs, attitudes, and perceptions of school personnel and to ask for their input, ideas, and concerns relating to the integration of Indian Studies. Also, the survey pinpointed the needs of teachers that could be addressed through inservice and staff development. Input and involvement of certified staff would make them stakeholders in the integration of Indian Studies. The survey also included an inventory of existing Indian Studies materials. The inventory would give the project the opportunity to build on existing resources and reach consensus on where and how the program should be developed.

The Indian Studies project now provides an information and curriculum dissemination center. Through this center the coordinator is responsible for:

1. The on-going development of curriculum materials and the coordination of the implementation of the curriculum into the regular instructional program at the appropriate elementary and secondary level.

2. Providing and/or locating special materials developed for specific topics for teachers requesting such materials.

3. Reviewing and evaluating classroom material used/developed for stereotype, biases, relevancy to historical and contemporary Lakota culture, to ensure the materials present a Lakota perspective of events, issues, problems and other concerns.

4. Coordinating a Curriculum Committee. The committee consists of certified teachers from each grade level (K-12). This committee develops Indian Studies materials using the Todd County curriculum guide to parallel and merge Indian Studies materials into the core curriculum so as to maintain continuity and high academic standards. The materials developed are compiled by grade level and presented to teachers at pre-and in-service workshops.

5. Developing and providing a list of resource people with expertise in all areas of American Indian culture to be utilized by Todd County staff. Suggested topics are Tribal Government, Tribal Natural Resources, Role of Lakota (Sioux) Men and Women, Lakota Culture, Spirituality, Story Telling (oral tradition), Music, Sports, Lakota Language, Arts/Crafts, Business, Computers, Science, First Aid, and Alcohol and Drug Abuse. The local resource people are also used as presenters at inservice workshops for teachers.

   A valuable resource for materials, speakers and research is Sinte Gleska College. Sinte Gleska College is a reservation based tribally controlled college, it is chartered by the Rosebud Sioux Tribe and is a fully accredited four year degree granting college.

6. Developing and distributing monthly activity packets for all elementary schools. The packets include information on topics of Indian Studies such as the culture area concept, values, environmental education, legends, Indian contributions to American culture, etc. The purpose of the packets are to introduce the Native American culture to the teachers in a way that would allow them to relate to the Indian culture, educating the teacher as well as the student.

7. Providing staff development through preservice and inservice bi-cultural training workshops for teachers. A common theme is emphasizing pride in Indian heritage and making formal education a relevant part of each student's life.

Formative as well as summative evaluations are conducted each year to evaluate the progress and direction of the project. Teachers agree unaminously that the materials distributed are useful, informative and helpful in meeting the goals of the project. Much appreciation is expressed for the resource people and services provided by the Indian Studies office. Teachers are sharing ideas, methods, and materials at inservice workshops.

Indian Studies is pertinent to the Rosebud (Lakota) Sioux people since ninety percent of the population's ethnic heritage is Lakota Sioux. The major obstacle is that there is very little in the way of commercially prepared materials available to facilitate an Indian Studies program. The majority of curriculum materials must be developed locally. Another problem is that often the teachers first experience with American Indian children is in the classroom. The teacher must rely soley on life experience to influence how he/she will teach in a multi-cultural society. The typical teacher's education consists of four years of academic coursework with maybe one course in multicultural education. This one course has the impossible task of doing justice to all culturally diverse groups in this country. Through the use of local resource people, Sinte Gleska College personnel, local development of curriculum materials and inservice programs for staff development we are developing the expertise necessary for all staff to realize the program's philosophy in all appropriate areas of the school curriculum and to coordinate all components of Indian Studies into the total curriculum.

1989 NRSSC EXEMPLARY PROGRAM AWARD

In

ADULT EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY ACTION

By

Doug Young, Superintendent
Alvin C. York Institute

A paper prepared for presentation at the NRSSC Rural and Small Schools Conference, Fort Lauderdale, Florida, March 8-12, 1989.

Introduction

The rural schools of Tennessee have been placed in a precarious position in recent years by legislative action, State Board Polic; and lack of public concerns. Many demands have been placed upon these schools to improve educational programs without the necessary funding from the state level. It has become necessary to turn to the private sector for assistance. York Institute, the only state school serving a rural population, established a model program for rural schools to follow in accomplishing this task.

The first step was to get the community leadership involved with the educational program of their own boys and girls and eventually the entire community. An advisory council had been established to act as a sounding board for changes in the goals and objectives of the school. Local officials were involved to expand the role of the school to encompass evening programs for adults.

The involvement of parents in their child's educational program through an open house resulted in seventeen parents showing up on the appointed evening. One year later the second open house resulted in bringing out over six hundred parents and citizens.

The advisory council was put to work developing a five year plan for York Institute. After many long stormy meetings, the plan was presented and accepted as written. Today most of the recommendations have been accomplished and the advisory council is currently working on their new five year plan.

The local officials worked together to establish the first community education program and provided funding for a Veterans Farm Training Program. This program ran successfully until all veterans in the area received the training. According to records, community education activities have now involved 8,600 persons.

Organization

Several programs were developed and supervised by existing staff. These programs were so successful that a local bank agreed to fund a community education director's salary. This is their forth year in the program. They are very pleased with their investment in the people of this community.

Goals and Objectives

York Institute's Community Education Program strives to:

a. Help people establish self-confidence--for many, this means to replace resignation with hope.
b. Involve parents who were dropouts in an education program, which will allow them to familiarize themselves with the schools that are being attended by their children. This is a concerted effort to change the value they place on education.

c. Encourage the support of parents enrolled in adult education programs to be involved with the educational program of their children.
d. Help the people of the community to realize their own potential for solving problems.
e. Harmonize the contributions to learning of all individuals and agencies in the community for total community education.
f. Create a home-school-community relationship and program which will enable each individual to have the best possible chance to (1) develop an adequate self-image, (2) establish appropriate life goals, and (3) build his/her personal traits and abilities to the highest possible degree.
g. Raise the literacy level of people in the community.
h. Improve the mental and physical well being of all citizens in the community.
i. Encourage senior citizens to continue active service to their communities and reclaim those who have resigned from active life.
j. Provide and set in motion all of the personnel, organization, or machinery necessary to assess the learning wants and needs of all persons in the community.
k. Create, implement, and direct a program of learning which will enable all persons to fulfill their unmet learning needs on a lifetime basis.
l. Help people prepare to cope with the impact of rapid changes in our highly technical society.
m. Enable adults to meet (on their own time schedules) the requirements for certificates, diplomas, and degrees at elementary, secondary, and college and university levels.
n. Enable people to upgrade their skills and qualify for new jobs or upgrade skills for the jobs they hold.
o. Help those in poverty circumstance gain upward social mobility.
p. Improve the economy of the community.
q. Create a positive attitude toward learning.
r. Meet the learning needs of the people in the academic, social, cultural, recreational, vocational, leisure time, economic, and health areas.

Activities

In order to meet the goals and objectives, the following classes, activities, programs, and seminars have been provided:

Classes

Adult Basic Education
GED Preparation
College Undergraduate
College Graduate
Basic Computer
Creative Writing for Publication
Karate
Bridge
Guitar
Typing
Tumbling
Welding
Home Landscaping
Oil Painting
Machine Shop Math
Fast Pitch Softball
Photography
First Aid and C.P.R.
Interior Decorating
Hunter Safety

Accounting
Aerobic Weight Training
Video Aerobics
Amateur Radio
Art
Small Engine Repair
Flower Arrangment
Quality Control
Diet and Exercise
Ceramics
Ladies Self-Defense
Shorthand
Golf
Square Dancing
Clogging
Business Letter Writing
Real Estate Appraisal
Office Occupations

Programs

Literacy Program (Tutoring adults in Reading)
GED Testing

Activities/Recreation

Picnics for Senior Citizens
Rook Tournaments for Senior Citizens
Health Fair for Citizens
Volleyball Tournaments
Horseshoe Pitching
Banquets for Community Organizations
Jogging/Walking Trail and Track

Cultural/Historical

Play, "The Private Wars of Sgt. York"

Seminars

Food for Your Heart
The Current Health Problem--AIDS
Child Abuse--What It Is
Your Insurance Needs
Teen Pregnancy--"What If It Were Your Daughter?"
Wills
Income Tax Preparation
Microwave Cooking
Drug Awareness for Parents

Rural Issues

The Community Education Program at Alvin C. York Institute addresses the issues and problems of the area by:

a. Attacking the literacy problem.
b. Improving the skills of the disadvantaged adult population.
c. Attempting to meet the cultural and recreational needs of an isolated rural area.
d. Helping the people to replace resignation with hope.
e. Helping those in poverty circumstances to gain upward social and economic mobility.
f. Creating, implementing, and directing a program of learning which will enable all persons to fulfill their unmet learning needs on a lifetime basis.

Rural Focus

Because of the inequity of the tax structure, rural schools have difficulty financing quality educational programs. Since Jamestown, Fentress County, Tennessee is an isolated rural area with a high illiteracy rate and a low socio-economic population, the Community Education Program at York Institute provides hope to the area's citizens for a brighter future.

With York Institute serving the area as the center of learning and recreation, programs are provided to enhance the lives of the citizens socially, culturally, and recreationally. In addition, the adults pursue programs to develop new skills through vocational and academic courses.

Community Involvement

The Community Education Program joins with public agencies, parents, businesses, volunteers, and other interested persons in providing programs to meet the needs of the community. Union Bank provides funding to pay the salary for the director. Professionals from the Fentress County General Hospital, the Tennessee Department of Human Services, the Tennessee Department of Health and Environment, and the Chamber of Commerce and other organizations volunteer to provide programs to the school. Business firms also provide programs along with needed resources. These firms include Progressive Savings Bank, Micro Metals, Taubert's Appliances, Fentress County Florist, and Greentree Nursery.

Volunteers come to the school to provide one-on-one tutoring in reading. And, our regular faculty comes back to school at night to provide instruction in needed areas, as requested. The news media--WDEB Radio Station, WCLC Radio Station, and the Fentress Courier--provide free publicity and advertising for the program. Local attorneys provide free seminars while local tax consultants provide income tax workshops. The local medical facilities and medical professionals provide yearly health fairs for the community.

Research Data

According to records, program activities have had a positive impact on more than 8,600 persons. Since the inception of the GED testing program, approximately one hundred persons have received high school equivalency diplomas. More than two hundred persons have completed graduate and undergraduate college courses in the past two years. More than seven hundred persons have participated in self-enrichment and personal development classes.

Approximately one hundred senior citizens have been involved in social activities planned especially for them. Recreational activities have served more than one thousand. The high school track and jogging trail accommodate more than fifty persons a day during the spring-summer-fall seasons, and more than twenty people a day use the weight room at the fieldhouse year around.

Program Limitations

Because of the distance that some instructional persons must travel for the program, some highly technical courses cannot be offered that would be of benefit to selected community groups.

The inequity of the tax structure makes it difficult for rural school systems to fund quality programs. Also, there are fewer community agencies such as YMCA and YWCA, and their role has been accepted by York Institute in our community.

Since the Jamestown Union Bank provides the salary of the director and other businesses and community groups provide volunteers, services, and support, enlisting such community-wide support might be difficult for other communities. In addition, lack of available facilities, personnel, and program sponsors are possible problems.

Since the majority of the people are acquainted with each other, the community members share a closeness: and the school and its facilities--both indoor and outdoor--have become a gathering place for an entire community. Feelings and attitudes found here might not be found in some other areas.

Sources of Funding

A local bank contributes $20,000 yearly toward the salary of a director for the program.

Several local business firms provide instructional personnel, supplies, and other materials for some of the classes and activities.

Individual volunteers give their time and talents for work with the program.

For classes for which the participants pay, the cost ranges form $2 to $5 for a 2-hour block, according to the type of class or activity and charges set by the instructor.

All seminars have been given by professionals in their fields and agency representatives without cost to the participants.

The local Chamber of Commerce and the area Private Industry Council have joined to provide an instructor for a career planning program for disadvantaged York students to provide them with the skills necessary for job success. The program teaches resume writing, work attitudes, interviewing techniques, properly filling out an application blank, and similar job-seeking skills which the students would not be intensively taught in their regular classrooms.

Abstract

1989 NRSSC EXEMPLARY PROGRAM AWARD: ADULT EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY ACTION

A rural bank donates $20,000 each year to support a community education program for the Alvin C. York Institute in Jamestown, Tennessee. This community is an isolated rural area with a high illiteracy rate and a low socio-economic population. The community education programs are provided to enhance the lives of the citizens socially, culturally, educationally and recreationally.

Academic classes, cultural classes and vocational classes form the backbone of this program. The literacy program, GED preparation and GED testing has provided many citizens in this community a richer and more fulfilling life. Recreational activities have encouraged many people to gain a new level of fitness. A play viewed by over 6,000 people has provided an opportunity for both cultural and historical enrichment. Seminars and fairs have enabled the citizens in this community to gain knowledge that otherwise would not have been available.

The greatest ambition for the York Institute community education program is to have a positive impact on the value system of our community to allow lifelong learning opportunities to occupy a very important place in the priorities of all our citizens. It is felt that with this change in values will come increased involvement of parents in the educational process of their children. This level of involvement should result in raising the literacy rate, lowering the dropout rate and improving student achievements.

STARS

(Success at To'Hajiilee with At-Risk Students)

Canoncito, New Mexico lies 40 miles west of Albuquerque and is home to the Canoncito Band of Navajo Indians. The 66,000 acre reservation supports a population of approximately 1,700. Attending the To'Hajiilee (Canoncito) Community School are 315 local students from the reservation. Although the school is officially a day school, it serves more as a dawn-to-dusk home, especially for those students whose home life is disrupted by alcoholism. We have defined "at risk" students rather broadly. A child is at risk for future maladjustment when his environment fails to support his developing a healthful relationship with himself or others. Suicide, low self-regard, alcoholism, and dropping-out are individual symptoms reflecting a loss of direction and hope. Given Navajo history within the last 150 years, these students' loss of direction mirrors a collective history of neglectful and harsh treatment. When one considers the 75-80% unemployment rate within the community, the high teen-age pregnancy rate, the extent of alcoholism and its related tragedies of neglect, abandonment and family violence, few children at Canoncito are suitably shielded from developing problems. Compounding these problems at Canoncito is the community's relationship with the main Navajo Tribe. The 210 mile distance between the two reservations isolates this community, adversely affecting positive ethnic-identification and group unity. A more practical example of Canoncito's isolation is seen by the services not provided by the main tribe. No social service caseworker or law enforcement officer is assigned to the community on a full-time basis, but rather these agencies make sporadic and emergency-based contact when called upon.

The last five years have brought major changes to our school. A new campus vastly superior and larger than the old one has boosted the community's pride. It is estimated that almost every community person (95%) has visited the campus. Open Houses, community dinners, adult recreation programs and an open-door policy inviting community members to join the students in a unity effort has broadened our work. As well as a standard educational curriculum (state and regionally accredited), after-hours classes for adults and high school students are offered. G.E.D. preparation is available, along with college courses in auto mechanics, computer science, math and science from Albuquerque's Technical-Vocational Institute. The Navajo Division of Labor funds after-school classes for adults and high school students in remedial and continuing education with the aim of immediate employment or college preparation. Transportation and food money is given to each student, which is a great incentive and reward.

In a 1986 report prepared by the Navajo Division of Education entitled Navajo Students at Risk, the authors cited six recommendations: 1) increase the number of counselors; 2) develop incentive programs rewarding improved attendance; 3) develop prevention programs for alcohol and drug abuse and teen pregnancy; 4) encourage students to participate in extracurricular activities and sports; 5) encourage parents to be involved in school; and 6) encourage parents to value education at home. We've taken a direction consonant with these guidelines.

To fill the gap in social service, the Canoncito School Board has targeted monies for counseling, social work and crisis care. A core team of a clinical social worker, counseling psychologist, school counselor, educational diagnostician, and administrative staff work in a team fashion to identify and treat the gamut of emotional and dysfunctional behaviors. This team approach is not limited to the counseling staff, but reflects a philosophy that any staff member working with the children (and that's everyone) has good suggestions and insights into the child's history and current situation. Home visits are made by staff members to check in on families and to offer help if needed. These home visits are crucially important. For many adults who have not succeeded in school, coming to the campus can be alienating. They tend to feel more comfortable on their own ground and will speak more openly at home.

The School Board has encouraged the efforts of a teen center sponsored by the University of New Mexico Department of Pediatrics. A nurse-practitioner and counselor provide their needed skills to our students and work closely with the community on suicide prevention plans, health fairs and contraceptive and public health issues. The success of this teen center, and the community's willingness and encouragement in providing as much counseling as possible, have given greater resources than would be available if limited to the school budget.

In addressing the recommendation that improved attendance should be rewarded, we have tried several things. Good attendance, appropriate conduct and passing grades have been rewarded by allowing students to work in Albuquerque in the afternoon and summer time under the "Mentorship Program". This program matches businesses and agencies with high school students. A coordinator oversees the program, providing transportation and smoothing out the often-frightened first job experience. Currently, ten students work for pay and there has been a demand by the students for more job placements. This program was not created for the failing student, but as a reward for those doing well. Nevertheless, we have seen students boost their grades and attend class when the gain has been to enter the Mentorship Program.

A second strategy was to provide child care for students with children during the school day and after school hours so they could attend extracurricular activities and night classes. A child development teacher supervises students, who in turn, take care of the children.

To tackle our huge problem of drug abuse, we have targeted prevention programs at the elementary and mid-school levels using the Lions Club International/Quest Center curriculum "Skills for Adolescents". Several teachers have been trained for teaching this program, and so far all mid-school students have been introduced to its philosophy. The University of New Mexico's "Becoming Your Own Best Friend" pilot project from the Department of Health and Physical Education involved the 5th, 6th and 7th graders, along similar lines as the Lions Quest program, i.e., enhancing

self-esteem and distancing oneself from unhealthful behaviors and peer pressure. Other programs have also been initiated: Project Charlie, Project Challenge, Students Against Drunk Drivers, "I'm a Winner", "Just Say No". Support groups are offered for children of alcoholics and for pre-teens.

At the high school level, we continue with the prevention based programs such as "I'm a Winner" which involved honor contracts (to not use drugs) for both students and staff. However, the extent of drug abuse within the community, the style of drinking characterized by early-aged use and binge drinking, the pressure to join-in as to not offend, and the lack of role models within the community who inspire the teen-agers to attend college or gain employment, are monumental forces which sway a majority of the teen-agers to drink. Inhalant use is either more prevalent within the last several years or has just been recognized. Collective denial of these problems has been addressed by the School Board, and with the community's increasing acknowledgement of this problem there have been more referrals for drug abuse counseling. An intervention team contacts each student and monitors attendance, behavior around the campus, and offers on-site counseling unless more intensive treatment is needed. The students are more willing to discuss their substance abuse and refer friends for counseling.

Unless the students have an immediate reward for sobriety, it seems very difficult for them to not drink when "everyone does it". Sports programs have been a great incentive for the students, as they show-off their talents that are not often enough tapped in scholastics. Grappling daily with a second language unlike their native Navajo, the students translate poor achievement scores into overall poor self-esteem. Basketball, cross country running, BMX racing, and volleyball teams are heartily supported by the community, with great attendance and spirit. Drunkenness qualifies for team suspension, and the students have realized the cost they pay. Summer recreation programs cosponsored by Johnson O'Malley and the school are very popular. Summer athletic camps are also a great incentive for sobriety as the high school students have an opportunity to leave the community for awhile and gain a successful experience that translates into "I can make it out there."

The school participated in the Department of Education's Southwest Training Center's annual survey of student substance use and school safety. The results have shown a remarkable reduction in substance use and great improvement of overall school safety. Attendance has improved to 92% versus 85% three years ago and in-house behavior/disciplinary referrals have dwindled. Student enrollment has increased 32% over three years from 238 students to 315 with the high school showing the major growth of 44%. Rather than attributing this success to one factor, a more fitting explanation might include a "critical threshold" analysis. With the school board, staff and community members realizing the severity of the drug abuse and drop-out problems, a <u>sustained</u> effort has been the key to our gains.

1989 ACRES Exemplary Rural Special Education Program Award Winners

1989 NATIONAL AWARDS FOR
EXEMPLARY RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

CATEGORY 7: EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

Educatic l Telecommunication (ETC)

A Project of the Department of Special Education at the University of Utah

Wanted: Special Education teacher to work with handicapped students in small rural school district. Salary is comparable. Benefits include clean, fresh air, and beautiful countryside "far from the madding crowd".

Rural means....a long way away; where everyone lives only one block from main street; where there is only one main street! In Utah, rural also means that finding and keeping qualified special educators is a difficult, if not impossible task for rural school districts. Since early in 1981, the Department of Special Education at the University of Utah has been in the process of developing a model rural teacher certification programs in response to the critical personnel shortages in the rural regions of this state.

The models currently being implemented make use of a tele-communications technology that has become available in the state during the last five years. In order to facilitate the most effective use of this technology for distance education, Educational Tele-Communication (ETC) was established within the Department of Special Education. The Educational Tele-Communications Project (ETC) is a video-technical consortium dedicated to developing, producing, and disseminating quality state of the art educational telecommunication programs, courses and other instructional products. The goals/objectives of the project include:

— Sponsoring the production of quality pre-service and inservice personnel preparation programs.

— Disseminating validated methods of instruction suitable for distance instruction in the field of special education.

— Conducting research regarding distance education technology enhanced instruction.

— Developing a professional and collegial network focused on issues related to the development and dissemination of validated strategies in distance education.

— Developing and transmitting quality instructional programs for elementary as well as secondary students.

— Providing a forum through which professionals may present, discuss, and debate issues critical to the field of education via telecommunication systems.

— Providing training and technical assistance to personnel who use telecommunications technologies to deliver information and instruction.

— Developing instructional and other support materials (courseware, training manuals, etc.) for use with consumers and users of training delivered through telecommunications technologies.

Educational Tele-Communications (ETC), working cooperatively with related federal and state personnel training projects provides rural communities with convenient access to state-of-the-art teacher training programs through two-way interactive television and/or site supported interactive television programs. By offering this training on site in each of the regions, the critical shortage of teachers for students with mild to moderate and severe/multiple handicaps is being addressed.

The administrative structure of ETC further enhances the overall collaborative efforts of the project. The advisory board for the project includes representation from several departments within the Graduate School of Education, from the Utah State Office of Education, and from the following college and state wide technological support groups EDNET, SETOC, and Instructional Media Services. A Projects Committee, with representation from each of the telecommunications projects, provides ETC with ongoing direction related specifically to the variety of technological efforts currently being implemented. And finally the Executive Committee provides coordination, evaluation and fiscal assistance for all of ETC's activities.

A strength of the tele-communications/distance education programs offered through the ETC project and the University of Utah is its "congruence" with the campus-based special education program. Rural teacher candidates receive the same quality instruction as the teacher candidates on campus. Yet, the learning activities are specifically focused on critical local issues which vary by region. For example, service patterns for students with moderate and severe handicaps are different in each of the regions of the State of Utah, due to population density, distances, ethnic issues, etc. There is a great deal of flexibility in the scheduling of the instruction for the interns in order to accommodate unique rural life styles (watering schedules, deer hunts, rodeos, county fairs, etc.!)

Other distinctive "rural" features of ETC training systems include: 1) locally recruited trainees, 2) site-based training and supervision, 3) locally developed teacher leadership personnel, 4) implementation of the special education consultant-teacher model tailored to the needs of rural resource teachers, 5) situation specific training and supervision, and 6) development

of locally based cohorts of teachers and leaders capable of providing ongoing information and support to each other during and after the training.

A very critical aspect of the success of the ETC project is its collaboration with local rural school districts. Master teachers at the local site work with the department faculty as Clinical Adjunct Instructors. They provide a cadre of local site-based expertise that sustains future preservice training programs. This approach not only benefits rural school district administration and teachers, but provides support for handicapped students and their parents in Utah's rural regions.

ETC has been extensively involved with the evaluation of the training projects offered to the rural regions. (These data are found primarily in journal articles, papers presented at national conferences, and final project reports.) Staff of ETC have found that there are some important features that must be addressed in planning and providing effective instruction via two-way interactive television. First, good interactive instruction does not occur by accident in the classroom nor on a telecommunication system. Most talented instructors need to be sensitized to the unique demands and aspects of two-way interactive television before they begin their teaching on the medium. Secondly, ETC faculty members have found that the following elements are absolutely essential in delivering distance education: (1) engaging/interesting teaching (2) clear instructional goals, (3) quality support materials which are closely correlated with the in-class instruction, (4) imaginative and meaningful use of media, (4) significant opportunities for written and verbal feedback, (5) skilled/trained on-site facilitators/instructors, and (6) effective communication with the technical and production personnel. When these factors are adequately addressed,

student perceptions regarding their learning and the quality of instruction are uniformly positive:

> -it was more convenient and economical for me....Frankly, if I had to travel to a campus in order to take the class I would not have been able to take it.
>
> -adding two-way visual communication increased the rural students feeling of involvement and encouraged participation.
>
> -I started out knowing nothing and found I understood as well as others at the end.
>
> -I learned a lot from the class. It has already proven helpful to me in my daily life.

Since 1983, at least 65 rural students have completed certifications is Special Education. In this coming year, approximately 25 rural students will complete certifications in the severely handicapped area. In the next two years, an additional 25 students will be certified to teach children with mild/moderate handicapping conditions. An additional 10-20 students will complete a university-approved program in transition training for students with mild to moderate and severe/profound handicapping conditions.

ETC is continuing to explore and evaluate the use of interactive and video technology. Activities include the development of inservice instructional packages in collaboration with a state wide CSPD project and the University of Washington, telecommunication training efforts with the University of Northern Arizona, and the creation of Learning Strategies Curriculum in a video format for secondary students. These efforts will expand the distance educational opportunities for Utah's rural educators and the students they serve.

Contact: Marshall Welch, Executive Director, Educational Tele-Communications; Department of Special Education, University of Utah, 219 Milton Bennion Hall, Salt Lake City, UT 84112; (801) 581-8121.

SPEECH-LANGUGE PATHOLOGY RURAL PROJECT

Karen B. Haines
Cheryl L. Prichard

Department of Speech Pathology and Audiology
West Virginia University

It is well documented that rural America is experiencing shortages of qualified special educators. Speech-language pathologists are in particularly short supply in rural areas. The Office of Minority Concerns of the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA) has identified rural/remote populations as one of six underserved communicatively handicapped populations.

The 1980 U.S. Census classifies all fifty-five counties in West Virginia as rural. West Virginia is a state characterized by many square miles of rugged unspoiled natural beauty and one with limited public transportation and deteriorating road conditions. Travel is at times difficult and service provision in many areas is at a premium. The public schools in West Virginia have historically experienced critical shortages of qualified speech-language pathologists. Data from the West Virginia Department of Education reveals that of the 55 counties in the state, 28 reported shortages during the 84-85 school year; 34 during 85-86; 39 during 86-87; 37 during 87-88 and 39 during 88-89. To address these shortages the Department of Speech Pathology and Audiology at West Virginia University initiated the Speech-Language Pathology Rural Project. Funding for this project was obtained through grants from the U.S. Department of Education and the WV Department of Education. This program focuses upon recruitment, training and retention of speech-language pathologists (SLPs) for rural areas. The long term goals of this project are as follows:

I. To develop and implement strategies for the recruitment and retention of SLPs in rural areas.

II. To train SLPs to cope effectively with the demands of remote, isolated and/or culturally distinct rural areas.

III. To increase the supply of SLPs in rural West Virginia to meet the needs of the communicatively handicapped population.

IV. To disseminate information regarding this training model to other rural areas of the country so that they may adapt and/or replicate this project to alleviate their manpower shortages.

Recruitment of individuals to work in rural areas has been actively targeted at the pre-service and professional levels. For the past two years junior and senior speech pathology and audiology students and incoming speech pathology graduate students at WVU have been surveyed regarding their interest in working in rural areas. Letters have been mailed to speech pathologists working in West Virginia to inform them about the opportunity to obtain a masters degree via the rural project. Upon their selection as grant participants, students sign an agreement stating that in exchange for financial assistance and tuition waivers they are required to take two courses in rural issues, work a designated number of hours per week on project activities, spend one semester on an externship in a rural site and work in a rural area following graduation.

Two unique aspects of this project are the academic coursework and practicum experiences. Two specially designed rural courses have been developed and are required for those students participating in the project. These courses provide the students with an understanding of the special needs and circumstances of rural areas and teach them strategies for the successful provision of speech pathology services in rural areas. Each year the students are asked to evaluate the courses. In general, the students have given the courses very positive evaluations with overall ratings of 4.75 on a 5 point scale. Externship practicum sites have also been established throughout West Virginia which enable the students to have a semester long field experience in a rural area. Students are encouraged to select an externship site in a county in which they might wish to be employed following graduation. Externship placements are carefully coordinated to provide the opportunity for the student to develop on the job skills under the direct supervision of an ASHA certified SLP. The externship placement is evaluated by the student and the student is in turn evaluated by the on-site supervisor.

Numerous other project activities have also been accomplished. A slide/tape show has been developed to recruit high school and junior college students into the fields of speech pathology and audiology. This will be made available to high school guidance counselors throughout the state to increase potential students awareness of the field.

Two surveys have been conducted to identify recruitment strategies and retention issues for rural speech pathology positions. All speech-language pathologists and Directors of Special Education working in the public schools in West Virginia were surveyed and their responses analyzed. Information obtained from the surveys was presented at the 1988 West Virginia Speech-Language-Hearing Association Convention, a Special Education Administrators meeting, and during a Career Recruitment Day which was held in April 1988. During the Career Recruitment Day participants were also provided with an opportunity to interview speech pathology graduate students for available positions in their respective counties. As a follow up, telephone interviews were utilized to obtain feedback from Career Recruitment Day participants. All participants indicated that they felt the recruitment and retention information presented was worthwhile and 100% of those interviewed said they would attend again.

(Medina City Schools,

Highland Local Schools – Sharon Elementary

Abstract

Author: Bruce W. Hulme, Ed.D.
Date: February 11, 1989

Title: Providing Mainstreaming in the Least Restrictive Environment for Low Incidence Children at the Elementary Primary Level.

Abstract: This report describes a program of mainstreaming multihandicapped children at the elementary level. The children in the Moderatley, Severely and Profoundly Retarded (MSPR) unit range in age from five to nine years old. The program is designed to meet the individual needs of the children while developing positive social skills, self-concept, communication skills, daily living skills at the developmental level of each child in academic social and emotional areas.

The initial mainstreaming efforts began within the school setting. Students were mainstreamed in art, music, kindergarten, and lunch/recess. Mainstreaming in tne kindergarten unit was facilitated when the principal scheduled the kindergarten classrooms beside and across the hall from the MSPR unit. The close proximity allowed for interaction on a continual and regular basis. Our multihandicapped children were utilizing the regular education program for arts and crafts, painting, cooking, story telling, group counseling, and many more activities. The students responded in a positive fashion to the activities in which they were involved within the confines of the school. To continue the full mainstreaming program, plans were developed to integrate the MSPR students in the community. The students participated in a full compliment of field trips with our kindergarten. These trips included going to the circus, zoo, post offfice and a weekly swim program.

Integration through field trips resulted in great gains in the multihandicapped children's social skills and self-concept. Because of the gains in student confidence more community based trips were planned. Independent of our kindergarten program, our children have experienced Christmas shopping, eating in a restaurant, grocery shopping and preparation of their own lunch, going to the local store and bank, as well as attending our high school for a Thanksgiving dinner prepared by the home economics class.

As a result of the extensive mainstreaming inititive there has been improvement in our MSPR children's self-concept, daily living skills, social skills and level of over-all confidence. Our regular education children grow with a better understanding of handicaps which result in a positive school climate from kindergarten through twelfth grade.

Mary Beth Wilson
North Dakota Dept of Public Instruction

ABSTRACT

The NORTH DAKOTA EARLY CHILDHOOD TRACKING SYSTEM is a joint project of the North Dakota Departments of Health, Human Services, and Public Instruction. The goal of the tracking system is to monitor the growth and development of young children, birth through age five, at risk for developmental delays. "At risk" status is determined by the presence of one or more biological or environmental risk factors.

Local interagency teams identify, refer, and monitor a child's progress over time, and make recommendations for followup services. Team membership is comprised of agencies that serve young children and their families and includes local public health units, WIC (Women, Infants, and Children Supplemental Nutrition) programs, local medical services, preschool special education programs, infant development programs, county social services, university programs (where applicable), and agencies specific to a geographic location, such as the Bureau of Indian Affairs schools, Tribal schools and social services, Indian Health Services, Head Start Programs, special needs adoption services, and so on.

The method of tracking growth and development involves a parent-completed questionnaire noting development in five domains and any areas of concern the parent may have. The instrument was developed by Dr. Diane Bricker and associates at the University of Oregon, Center on Human Development, Eugene, Oregon. The questionnaires begin at four months of age and range to 48 months.

Special features of the project include a computerized data management system, local interagency services directories, a manual for local interagency teams, a set of modifications for use with agencies on Indian reservations, and a slide-tape/video presentation of the Early Childhood Tracking System process.

02/89

THE NORTH DAKOTA EARLY CHILDHOOD TRACKING SYSTEM

The North Dakota Early Childhood Tracking System was first conceptualized in 1985 as part of a joint venture between the Departments of Health, Human Services, and Public Instruction. Utilizing federal grant funds, an interagency task force was assembled in mid-1986 to outline the parameters of an early childhood tracking project.

Part of the orientation for task force members was a series of presentations on tracking systems in four other states: Delaware, Texas, Utah, and Washington. Using the information provided along with task force members' knowledge of North Dakota and its service systems, a system for tracking young children at-risk for developmental delays due to biological or environmental risk factors was outlined.

The system that was designed includes use of local interagency teams made up of agency representatives who work with young children and their families. The local teams were given the responsibility of carrying out the procedures (referral, monitoring, and follow-up) involved in tracking young at-risk children. A project coordinator works with each local team providing necessary training, facilitating team meetings, scheduling meetings, and arranging for the behind-the-scenes activities that make the system work: handling correspondence, updating the data management system, making contacts to families or agency personnel, providing training or technical assistance.

Children are referred to the tracking system by any of the participating agencies. A set of biological and environmental risk criteria have been adapted from **Warning Signals: Basic Criteria for Tracking At-Risk Infants and Toddlers** by James Blackman, M.D. (National Center for Clinical Infant Programs, 1986). The referral source completes the referral and authorization forms with the child's parent/guardian, explains the tracking system and shares printed materials. Participation is always voluntary.

The team reviews the referral data and makes a decision about whether to 1.) refer the child to another agency or service provider; 2.) monitor the child's development through the tracking system; or 3.) carry out follow-up activities to obtain additional information for a referral or monitoring decision. If the team determines to monitor the child, follow-up communication is provided to both the parent and the referral source.

The actual tracking or monitoring of the young child's development may typically occur in one of two ways: a questionnaire is mailed to the parent/guardian asking for information about the child's development or a developmental screening is conducted by participating agencies. The questionnaire was developed by Dr. Diane Bricker at the University of Oregon as part of an Infant Monitoring Project. The questionnaires are sent to family members at regular intervals from ages 4 to 48 months. The screenings are broad-based developmental screenings that cover the same areas as the questionnaires and include a parent interview to elicit specific concerns the parent may have about the child's development.

The project was first piloted in the city of Grand Forks, North Dakota. Grand Forks, with a population of about 40,000, has a major medical center, a state university, an air force base and is a regional center for many agency services. The interagency team at the pilot site is made up of 18 team members representing community health services, schools, human services, the hospital's neonatal intensive care unit and hospital social services, the university, Head Start, and other local agencies.

In its first year of operation beginning in February 1987, pilot site personnel developed a set of procedures to carry out the tracking activities, refined and adapted the original project plan, and worked through a number of interagency issues. A one year evaluation study conducted at the end of this period revealed considerable commitment on the part of interagency team members to the tracking system and interest in continuation of the project. Recommendations for improvement of the system were integrated or put on hold until additional pieces of the project would be established.

EXPANSION

At the pilot site, tracking activities were phased in by geographic and service delivery areas, expanding from the city of Grand Forks to all of Grand Forks County. This resulted in an expanded referral area and added the rural outreach component to the system. Team members became familiar with the function of an interagency team, the tracking project, and the policy guidelines and services of each member agency.

Beginning the second year, in early 1988, the tracking project expanded, county - by - county, into the remaining three counties comprising the Northeast Planning Region. Local interagency teams were organized in each county for tracking purposes because these locations have either hospitals or medical clinics and serve as rural centers for medical services. Members of the Grand Forks Tracking Team, with region-wide responsibilities, assisted in coordinating the tracking activities in the surrounding rural counties, and increased their agency contacts in outlying areas.

The third phase of the project began in the fall of 1988. Project personnel were hired to implement the tracking system in the Southwest Planning Region and one of the four major Indian reservations in North Dakota.

CURRENT STATUS

Currently the North Dakota Early Childhood Tracking System is operational in two of the state's eight planning regions, covering 12 counties, and on two of the four Indian reservations. In the Northeast Planning Region, interagency tracking teams are located in each of the four counties. The Southwest Planning Region has eight counties though, due to more rural populations, only two tracking teams were organized to cover four counties each. This incorporated the geographics of the service delivery systems already functioning.

Implementation of the tracking system on the four major Indian reservations has required careful planning and assessing of the political climate, and organizational systems. In addition to services available statewide, each reservation has federal and tribal agencies unique to reservations, such as Tribal health and social services, Bureau of Indian Affairs schools and social services, and Indian Health Services. The first two reservations to be served by the Tracking System are the Ft. Berthold and Northern Standing Rock Reservations.

A computerized data management system has been developed to ease the processing of information updates, questionnaire mailings, agency and parent contacts, and other data management tasks. At present, the system allows for aggregation of information at the state level. A future expectation of the project is to allow the local agency to transmit data electronically for aggregation and to receive analyzed information in the same manner.

FUTURE PLAN

It is anticipated that statewide implementation will be accomplished by the Fall of 1990. Personnel projections are to hire four project coordinators to carry out project activities. The state will be divided into four quadrants for tracking purposes. Each quadrant will include one of the state's four major cities and a large rural area. State funding for the project will be sought during the 1991 legislative session.

Contact Person is Mary Beth Wilson, Project Coordinator, North Dakota Department of Public Instruction, 600 East Boulevard, 10th Floor, Bismarck, North Dakota 58505-0440; 701/224/2277.

PROGRAM ABSTRACT

SECONDARY VOCATIONAL/POST-SECONDARY VOCATIONAL

TRANSITION PROJECT OF THE MINNESOTA VALLEY COOPERATIVE CENTER

This Secondary to Post-Secondary Vocational Transition Project, which has headquarters out of the Minnesota Valley Cooperative Center in Granite Falls, Minnesota, has become known for it's strong Interagency commitment, Employer Commitment, and representative school commitment, to making vocational opportunities available to handicapped secondary age students.

This project has several components which tie into one primary focus. These components are:

A.) Employability Skills Class and Life Skills Class for Identified Handicapped Students;

B.) On the Job Work Experience opportunities for all students in the program who are at least sixteen years of age by involving private and public sector community based employers;

C.) Referral and Program involvement by a three county, fourteen agency/seventeen member committee, who review student referrals as approved by students and/or parents, and plan for secondary to post secondary transition opportunities for identified students;

D.) The present developement of a complete hands-on computerized vocational laboratory which will be used to asses students vocational strengths and weaknesses, and provide them with social skills training, and reading and math skills training in their identified area(s) of strength. This component of the project is being developed in conjunction with the Secondary Vocational Handicapped Section at the Minnesota Department of Education.

This Interagency, Employer, and School District Commitment, by the specific districts of Granite Falls, Clarkfield, Echo, Wood Lake, Clara City, Renville, and Sacred Heart; has become recognized for it's rural emphasis, due to the diversity of students served as well as the vast array of rural employability settings which have been utilized. The Work Experience/Employability Skills Program was also recognized as exemplary in the State of Minnesota two years ago when it was the recipient of a State Effective Grant.

The School Districts, Employers, and the Interagency Team look forward to a long and very productive relationship in the years to come.

Conference Proceeding for
National Exemplary Project
Entitled:
Secondary Vocational/Post-Secondary Vocational
Transition Project of the Minnesota Valley Cooperative Center

Transition efforts, as an attempt to move handicapped students from a secondary to post-secondary training setting, have been experiencing some great successes over the past few years. These successes have occurred due to the fact that:

1) Educators with foresight saw the need to systematically plan a transition process for students, so they would not "get lost" in the system;
2) Parents have become more knowledgeable of services available, and according to the law aware that districts must provide free and appropriate public education based on the principles of LRE; and
3) State education agencies and legislative bodies have introduced legislation to insure that transition services are provided to students with all types of handicapping conditions when a need is identified.

The Granite Falls Public Schools, which is located in Granite Falls, Minnesota and is a member district of the Minnesota Valley Cooperative Center; incorporated the beginning Stages of Vocational Transition into their special education program thirteen years ago. This process began with the incorporation of Daily Living Skills, Employability Skills, and Work Experience opportunities.

This process has since developed and matured into a system by which:

1) Students are now involved in career awareness activities in the elementary years;
2) Career awareness, pre-vocational skills training and daily living skills training begin in the upper elementary grades and continue in grades seven through nine;
3) Employability skills training and vocational assessment is made available to students from ninth grade and up; and
4) Specific vocational assessment in conjunction with on-the-job work experience and employability skills class, is promoted and in some cases required for identified students from sixteen years of age and up.

The components of this program which deal specifically with the inclusion of Employability Skills and Daily Living Skills are often taught in cooperation with each other. A curriculum guide was developed two summers ago, after consultation with other curriculum guides, to incorporate on a hierarchical basis the social skills, cognitive/academic skills, personal/self-help skills, community awareness skills, leisure skills, etc., which individuals will need to know in order to live and work independently in society. This focus is designed in order to provide these students with all the different types of skills they will need in years to come.

In addition to this, the inclusion of an On-the-Job Work Experience component gives the students the opportunity to practice in the "real-world", the skills with which they learn in the classroom setting. The Work Experience job sites in the rural area are somewhat similar

to some urban areas, however the primary focus in rural areas in regard to placements have been on farms, implement dealers, farmers cooperatives, and small town businesses, etc. The employers have come to greatly appreciate the hard work by the students involved and even depend on them! In addition, the local Job Training Offices have established and continue to maintain a very pro-active role in supporting a large portion of the wage expense for these students.

The community as a whole is very supportive of this aspect of the program, and supports it by honoring those involved at a yearly Employer/ Employee Banquet each spring. In the past three years this honorary banquet has drawn the attendance of over 160 people each year, as well as guests from around the State of Minnesota; including the State Department of Education/Secondary Vocational Handicapped, the University of Minnesota, as well as the Manager of the Special Education Section from the Minnesota Department of Education.

A great deal had been accomplished in the past, however a need to tie this secondary training to post-secondary planning continued to exist. In November of 1987, a Community Transition Team made up of representatives of: Public Health (3 counties), Social Services (3 counties), Job Training, Vocational/Regular/Special Education (representing seven schools), DRS (Department of Rehabilitation Services), STI's (Southwestern Technical Institute), SSU (Southwest State University), the Area Vocational Assessment Centers and invited parents, was formed to complete this task. By the spring of 1988, a formal Interagency Agreement had been drawn up and signed by each agency represented,

which outlined the services each agency could provide to handicapped students moving from the secondary to post-secondary setting, as well as the costs which they can pick up in conjunction with other agencies. This interagency committee now meets on a monthly basis and reviews student referrals (after parent permission) and makes suggestion in regard to: what extent each agency should be involved, what new information is needed, what costs can be covered by each agency, and which agency will take over case management at the time the student enters the post-secondary realm.

A final component to include in this synopsis is the present development of a hands-on assessment/computerized instructional laboratory which will be functional by the fall of 1989. This laboratory will incorporate computer equipment, computer software, hands-on assessment centers, and the personnel required to staff the lab. This project has been developed through a cooperative effort of the Minnesota Department of Education, a computer software company, the Granite Falls Schools and the Minnesota Valley Cooperative Center. It will be set up as a pilot site during the 1989-1990 school year.

The long-range plan has been to tie all of the specific areas of Career Awareness, Vocational Assessment and Programming, Life Skills/ Daily Living Skills Training, Employability Skills Training, On-the-Job Work Experience Training, training in all of the specific Vocational Cognitive Skills in order to function successfully after high school, and finally an Interagency Transition approach for post-secondary planning. It is the belief of the Granite Falls School and the Minnesota Valley Cooperative Center, that this long-range plan is now being realized. We look forward to a very bright future in Vocational Training and Transition Planning for the handicapped in the rural area.

INTERAGENCY COLLABORATION: A COOPERATIVE APPROACH FOR EDUCATIONAL SERVICE DELIVERY TO LOW-INCIDENCE HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

A B S T R A C T

The Pilasco-Ross Special Education Regional Resource Center serves four counties in south-central Ohio. Since 1973, this center has been charged with assisting school districts to develop new methods of providing educational services to low-incidence children in cooperative ways. During these sixteen years, the region has developed a cooperative service delivery model which has proved to be both cost effective and educationally sound in terms of operation. Forty school districts--representing all of the school districts in the service area--are now cooperating in terms of program, time, finance, housing, and transportation to meet the educational needs of a very select group of students.

The model serves multihandicapped, hearing handicapped, visually handicapped, orthopedically handicapped, severe behavior handicapped, and autistic-like children. This has been accomplished through the establishment of thirty-two classrooms and other units which are strategically located throughout the four counties served. All programs have been developed cooperatively; all problems; all costs; all benefits are shared cooperatively among all school districts.

Today the model serves 227 low-incidence handicapped children. The model is an evolutionary one which can be modified to meet whatever changes occur locally in terms of population or special needs. It is the only one of its kind in Ohio, and has been able to serve virtually all of the area's handicapped population. A video tape presentation concerning this program will be given tomorrow afternoon.

EXPRO PROGRAM
EXEMPLARY PROGRAM:GIFTED DIVISION
DAYTON, WASHINGTON
JEAN LANE:COORDINATOR/TEACHER

Three elements which distinguish the Expro Program in Dayton, Washington from other programs for gifted students in rural schools include: a strong, determined parent support group; volunteer teachers from the community; and a committment to enrich education for all students in the district. These components establish a foundation on which young people may expand academic horizons and enhance the total learning environment.

The Dayton Chapter of the Northwest Gifted Children's Association is comprised of parents who are interested in the development of their children's special talents. These parents provide political, monetary and advisory support for the Expro program. Through fund-raisers and grant writing they subsidize travel, registration fees, materials, and visiting performers. Six parents serve on an advisory council that assists with the program development, evaluation, and student selection process. Most importantly, these parents vocalize their concern on both a local and state level when issues concerning gifted education arise.

This community is fortunate to have a wealth of energetic individuals willing to assist in the education of their young people. Retired professionals and women with college degrees who have chosen to use their talents in the home comprise the volunteer teachers who work with up to sixty students per week. Though lesson plans are created by the coordinator of the Expro program, the volunteers do the actual weekly instruction. These instructors bring a new perspective and appreciation for education to the students. Art, literature, problem-solving, and science classes are available for highly capable students in third through eighth grades.

Dayton is an isolated agricultural community located in the southeastern corner of Washington State. Parents and teachers have long recognized the need to provide a wider range of cultural experiences for students and to broaden their educational horizons. Consequently, the Expro program strives to bring the "world" to Dayton Schools. The program particularly emphasizes hands-on type activities in math and science, and direct participation in music and art programs.

Expro is a Latin term that loosely translates into "We dare to set out from the harbor." This student-chosen name expresses the desire of children in the community to take a risk, discover special talents, and to strive for excellence. Their desires have led the school and community into a closer, more positive relationship.

PROGRAM SUMMARY
EXPRO PROGRAM
DAYTON, WASHINGTON

Dayton is an isolated agricultural community located in the southeastern corner of Washington state. Parents and teachers have long recognized the need to provide a wider range of cultural experiences for students and to broaden their educational horizons. Consequently, the Expro program strives to bring the "world" to Dayton schools. It particularly emphasizes hands-on type activities in math and science; and direct participation in music and art programs.

Expro is a Latin term which, when loosely translated, means "We dare to set out from the harbor." This student-chosen name represents the students' desire to risk, to develop special talents and to strive for excellence in education. The school and community have developed a closer relationship due to this challenge from the students.

The purpose of the Expro Program is to provide opportunities for education of the individual student (grades K-12) according to his or her academic and creative abilities and in conjunction with needs and interests. Intellectual ability, academic aptitude, and creative higher level thinking skills are developed through programs tailored to each student's unique and advanced accomplishments.

Dayton schools have a student body of 675 students K-12. Approximately 18% of the children participate in one or more parts of the Expro program on a weekly basis.

Students are eligible after self-nomination, or after nomination by a parent, teacher, or other adult. The prospective participants are then screened by the Expro Advisory Council; and also must meet the achievement and cognitive test requirements. The Advisory Council consists of teachers and parents who discuss and suggest program placement for each nominated student. The size of our school allows each adult personal knowledge of a majority of the student population. This knoiwledge is an advantage in placement of students who may not test well, but have a desire for advanced challenges in specific academic fields.

The Expro Program contains the following major components:

A. Overall achievement program (grades 3-8): Students who rank in the ninetieth percentile or above on the cognitive test and in two or more basic subject areas participate in a three-hour pull-out class once per week. Science, literature, problem-solving, and individual special interest research are emphasized. The Expro Coordinator teaches the overall enrichment classes which combine students from pairs of sequential grade levels (3-4, 5-6, 7-8).

B. Enrichment program (grades 3-8): Students who show special aptitude and interest in a specific subject area are grouped by grade level in a one-hour per week pull-out module. Offerings are Problem-Solving, Reading Enrichment, Science Wizards, and Art. Lessons plans (except art) are developed by the Expro Coordinator and classes are taught by knowledgeable volunteers.

C. Enrichment through Acceleration (grades 7-12): Advanced placement is an option for students in math and/or English. Additionally, an honors English class taught by a certified volunteer instructor is available to juniors and seniors.

D. All-class Enrichment (grades K-2): The Expro Coordinator teaches subject specific modules in each classroom once per week. Learning stations are left in each classroom so that students can pursue the weekly subject in more depth on their own.

E. All-school Enrichment: The Expro parent support group (affiliated with the North West Gifted Child Association) sponsors special programs, speakers, and workshops. All students K-12 participate in group activities and the Expro students then have an opportunity to work with the presenter in greater detail. To date, a poet and a musician have spent two and three days in the district. In addition Expro sponsors a regional Spelling Bee, Math Olympiad, and Declamation Contest which are open to any interested students. Students (not necessarily enrolledin Expro) also attend Science Champions, the EWU Writer's Conference, Mid-Columbia Writer's Conference, and various math contests; with fees, chaperones, and transportation provided by Expro as needed.

Cooperative efforts with other rural school districts are an important factor in the success of the Expro program. Expro maximizes each cultural experience by sharing its events with the community and other small rural schools. To date, the towns of Starbuck, Waitsburg, and Pomeroy have benefitted by attending concerts sponsored by Expro; and visiting the Pacific Science Center's traveling science demonstration when it exhibits in Dayton. Pre-schoolers were invited to songwriter Jim Valley's concert; and the Dayton Kiwanis Club and Chamber of Commerce have been entertained and enlightened by Valley and by poet David Greenberg. The public is always invited to attend and participate at Expro sponsored events.

The sharing of knowledge is also an integral part of the Expro program in the Dayton schools. When selected students do attend out-of-town events, responsibility is placed on them to share their knowledge with the rest of their class and the school. After Expro students attend Science Champions they write lesson plans, go as teams into each classroom and reproduce experiments; taking care to choose activities in which all the students can participate.

Community involvement has enriched the quality of this unique, rural, gifted student project. Volunteers are used

extensively to implement programs. Seven volunteers teach enrichment classes on a weekly basis. When Expro gives its annual "Volunteer Tea", over 100 invitations are sent to people who have helped in some way during the school year; whether it be chaperoning a bus, coaching a student for the Declamation contest, or being a mentor.

A strong parent support group helps set program goals and raise funds to implement the goals. Fund-raising efforts have ranged from homemade ice cream sales at community festivals to writing grant applications.

Many businesses and organizations have contributed financially to Expro. In return Expro students have presented programs to community groups and functions.

The success of Expro in the Dayton School District is directly attributable to the expertise, talents, enthusiasm, and organizational and communication skills of the coordinator. Jean Lane has been able to access community member's talents and expertise to benefit individual students. She has willingly shared her own expertise with classroom teachers. She has pulled together a workable and quality program from very diverse and limited resources while holding only a 2/7 time position. Finding a qualified successful coordinator is definitely the most important task to accomplish before implementing a program such as Dayton's.

Expro is evaluated by students, parents, teachers, and state officials to maintain quality offerings and set new goals for the future. Gail Hanninen, SPI coordinator of Washington Gifted and Talented programs, visited the site and evaluated the Expro program in the Spring of 1988. She was very impressed with the quality and extent of program offerings and how they meet the particular needs of students in our district. She was especially pleased with the innovative volunteer teacher approach and how smoothly the program operated after only two years. Ms. Hanninen has recommended Expro to other rural districts exploring options.

Success is also seen by the enthusiastic response of students and parents to the program and by its growth. Only one student (of 80+ from grades 3-8) has chosen to discontinue participation. Interest in the art enrichment class and taking multiple enrichment modules has necessitated adding more class periods to maintain small class size.

The Expro Advisory Council consisting of teachers and parents evaluates the program annually. The criteria used is similar to that developed by SPI for evaluating programs for highly capable students during the self-study process. Expro continues to meet and exceed expectations.

The Expro Program is now an integral part of the opportunities available in Dayton School District. The community and school take pride in this accomplishment.

Peggy L. Anderson, Ph.D.
Henry B. Reiff, Ph.D.
Audrey D. McCray, M.Ed.
Department of Special Education
Southeastern Louisiana University
P.O. Box 879, SLU
Hammond, LA. 70402

Project AIME:

Multicultural Training for Special Educators

Preparation of this presentation was supported in part by grants from the U.S. Department of Education (Grant Nos. G008715010 and G008715543).

Abstract

This presentation describes a demonstration project that focuses on revising university special education training to reflect a more pluralistic approach to teacher preparation. Project AIME (Achievement in Multicultural Education) emphasized the undertaking of three major steps: (a) evaluation of the existing training program, (b) development of the framework for program revision and (c) integration of multicultural objectives and content. In order to evaluate the current training program, a needs assessment was conducted with input from the newly established Advisory Council for Rural and Ethnic concerns. The infusion and unit approaches were selected as the most appropriate methods for achieving program revision. Integration of multicultural objectives and content was accomplished by the two project coordinators who assisted faculty members with coursework modification.

This paper will be published in slighly different form in the Rural Special Education Quarterly, Winter, 1989 (Volume 9, Number 3) entitled "Project AIME: Developing a Multicultural Training Program."

Project AIME:

Multicultural Training for Special Educators

During the past ten years, significant strides have been made in the area of multicultural education. As a result of this progress there currently exists an increasing awareness that the United States education system must accommodate the various and diverse needs of its pluralistic culture. Both the American Association for Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE) and the National College Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) have acknowledged the significance of multicultural education and have prescribed specific standards which promote multicultural teacher training (AACTE, 1973; NCATE, 1979). NCATE has been particularly influential in its role as a governing agency because of its policy of withholding accreditation from institutions whose teacher training programs do not reflect pluralistic standards. However, in spite of this growing commitment to the principles of multicultural education, a considerable discrepancy between the acceptance of these tenets and actual practice appears to be particularly true for the field of special education which must grapple with some very unique and complex problems in pluralistic education.

With respect to rural education, two-thirds (67 percent) of all schools in the United States are rural and the majority of unserved and underserved exceptional students are located in these settings (Sher, 1981). Nevertheless, state education agencies report that university training programs have not prepared special education personnel to deal with the unique demands of service delivery in rural areas (Smith-Davis, Burke, & Noel, 1984). Helge's (1981) survey of 200 rural special education administrators verified these training deficiencies. Her survey respondents overwhelmingly reported (97 percent) that they had not been trained for work with rural handicapped students. In view of these findings, Helge concluded that teacher training programs generally do not give consideration to special rural needs. Marrs (1984) likewise has highlighted the significant need to develop new training curricula to be used in the preparation of teachers. He contended that the rural handicapped population would have greater personal and professional success which would alleviate the problematically high attrition rate of these teachers.

An equally important issue in pluralistic special education concerns meeting the needs of exceptional students who come from

ethnically and/or linguistically diverse backgrounds (Bacas, 1980; Harber, 1980; Poplin & Wright, 1983, Cunningham, Cunningham, & O'Connell, 1986). During the last two decades minority groups have been overrepresented in special education programs (Dunn, 1968; Fradd & Hallman, 1983; Heller, Holtman & Messick, 1982; Mercer, 1973; Taylor, 1986). Evidence of this disproportionate distribution of services has also been observed in the courts. Litigation has been sought by plaintiffs who have alleged discrimination on the part of schools with respect to special education practices (Diana v. California State Board of Education, 1970; Larry P. v. Riles, 1979; Mattie T. v. Holladay, 1977). This litigation has forced school systems to be more sensitive to assessment of the culturally different handicapped child. Similarly, university training programs have become more responsive in modifying their curricula to address nondiscriminatory assessment; however, little evidence suggests that other multicultural aspects, such as recognition of different cognitive styles of learning or modification of the curriculum to meet the needs of culturally diverse groups, have been addressed. Rodriguez (1982) summarized the state of the art with regard to pluralistic special education training programs by noting that no teacher training programs have been identified which "systematically integrated experiences specific to multicultural needs" (p. 221).

Whereas most teacher training programs acknowledge the significance of pluralistic preparation of teachers, the majority of these are in actuality proceeding with an anachronistic monocultural approach which is impractical for solving today's public school system challenges. The purpose of the presentation was to describe the efforts of the faculty of one training program, Southeastern Louisiana University's Department of Special Education, in their goal to modify training to reflect a more pluralistic approach to teacher education. This effort was referred to as Project AIME (Achievements in Multicultural Education) and was developed to meet the needs of both rural and ethnically diverse exceptional students.

Evaluation of Existing Training Program

The initial step taken by the staff of Project AIME was the evaluation of the existing training program. This evaluation was accomplished through the development of a programmatic needs assessment approach combined with a specific evaluation of each course for multicultural content. With respect to the needs assessment approach, a community Advisory Council for Rural and Ethnic Concerns was established by seeking the participation of each special education director and one teacher from each of the 14 parishes (counties) which comprise the University's service region. A comprehensive needs assessment tool which addressed

specific areas of teacher training, (e.g., communication disorders in culturally diverse populations, practica opportunities in multicultural settings, learning styles of different ethnic groups, and awareness of sociocultural influences) was developed by the coordinators of Project AIME. The 28 members of the Advisory Council were asked to rate the importance of each of these training competencies. The results of this needs assessment therefore reflected training needs and priorities as perceived by the members of the Council.

The specific evaluation of courses for multicultural content replicated that which was developed by Rodriguez (1982) for a multicultural project at the University of Kansas. Basically, Rodriguez's evaluation method encompassed analyzing the pluralistic perspective by evaluating texts, syllabi, and learning activities in terms of four criteria levels of multicultural content: a) Level I indicated an absence of multicultural content, b) Level II suggested minimal multicultural content, c) Level III denoted some multicultural integration and sensitivity, and d) Level IV revealed indepth multicultural challenges and synthesis of issues. Rodriguez suggested that this data could be efficiently gathered with the assistance of an evaluation grid. This grid indicated whether texts, readings, lectures, and other activities addressed pertinent multicultural issues such as limited English proficiency, cultural values, disproportionate numbers in special education, etc. This is the procedure which was used by Project AIME.

In addition, the two project coordinators interviewed all Department faculty members with respect to each course which they taught. These meetings required approximately one hour of each faculty member's time. The efficiency of this evaluation effort was a function of the considerable cooperation which was given by the faculty members. Faculty members were aware of the purpose of the interview, largely because NCATE recommendations for multicultural content had been discussed in faculty meetings. During the structured interview, each member responded to six questions concerning how the instructor attempted to integrate multicultural content with the course. It was expected that such self-reporting would naturally tend to reflect favorably on each instructor. At the same time, it was hoped that a desire to highlight individual concern with multicultural issues would lay a foundation for developing more effective approaches. Each individual faculty member expressed a personal interest in fulfilling the commitment which the faculty as a group had made.

Developing the Framework for Program Revision

In determining the best methods for integrating multicultural education into the existing curricula, the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association's (ASHA) curriculum guidelines (1987) were found to be particularly helpful. These guidelines were developed to promote the inclusion of multicultural content by providing examples of different approaches. ASHA recommended four alternative curriculum approaches: a) pyramid, b) unit, c) infusion, or d) course. The pyramid approach involves offering a series of courses pertaining to multicultural populations; each course in this sequence is followed by a subsequent course which is more advanced (e.g., 101 Characteristics of Multicultural Populations might be folowed by 201 Communication Disorders in Multicultural Populations, and so forth). In the unit approach, each course in the curriculum includes one or more units which give emphasis to information pertaining to multicultural populations. The infusion approach is somewhat similar to the unit approach with the exception that multicultural content is incorporated throughout the entire course ratherd than being confined to one or more separate units. Finally, the course approach involves the use of a single course that is intended to cover all aspects of pluralistic education.

The Project AIME staff elected to use both the unit and the infusion approaches to professional training. The unit approach was considered to be an attractive vehicle for program revision because of the flexibility which it allowed. The multicultural unit was developed, in part, with the data collected from the Advisory Council for Rural and Ethnic Concerns and presented by the two project coordinators of AIME. This was particularly attractive to the Department faculty who were very receptive about allowing this type of material to be presented in their courses. The infusion approach was thought to be an exceptionally appropriate follow-up to the curriculum analysis which was previously conducted. The evaluation of texts, syllabi, and learning activities lent itself well to delineating specific pluralistic strengths and weaknesses. Faculty members were then able to take these data and provide supplementary information in the necessary areas.

Integration of Multicultural Objectives and Content

The multicultural unit, implemented to integrate multicultural objectives and concerns, consisted of a presentation to every class in all courses offered by the department. The aforementioned interview with each instructor during the course evaluation process provided the two project coordinators with a sense of the general awareness of multicultural issues throughout the department.

These interviews revealed that discussions about the cultural diversity of students occurred mainly on an informal basis. Some instructors did present formal lectures which focused on how special education practices impact multicultural students, especially in the area of assessment. Instructors who taught classes with a relatively high percentage of minority students found that multicultural issues often arose from student concerns. Most faculty members indicated that recent discussions in faculty meetings had prompted them to examine their own attitudes and values.

In order to build on this knowledge base, the two project coordinators emphasized the relevance of multicultural issues to rural special education. The success of this unit approach was in part dependent on the creativity of the presentation. A major aim of the presenters was to involve students and encourage active thinking and participation. The first part of the presentation involved a discussion about the students' native state, Louisiana. Most students quickly realized that rural Louisiana offers significant cultural diversity. The cultural pluralism of the state is reflected in many distinct pockets of cultures and ethnicities, a watery terrain resulting in isolated and unique areas largely untouched by mainstream culture, and a religious influence which pervades education decision making at the state level.

In specifically addressing multicultural issues deemed important by the Advisory Council for Rural and Ethnic Concerns, the project coordinators proceeded to focus on assessment and instructional programming with students from diverse cultural backgrounds. In an effort to sustain attention and heighten interest, information was delivered in a multi-media format. For example, one overhead presented Mercer's (1973) research on the over-representation of minority students in special education as a springboard for discussing concerns about bias in testing as well as teaching. Using Orlando's (1986) research on communication disorders in culturally diverse populations, the coordinators discussed the importance of distinguishing language deficits from dialectic differences. The importance of the relation between instructional programming, learning styles, and sociocultural influences was stressed through an overhead illustrating the factors of rural poverty, ethnicity, geographical isolation, and religious influence in teaching exceptional students in southeastern Louisiana. Finally, the coordinators presented a 20 minute video, "What's the Difference Being Different?" (Research Press, 1979) which details how a multicultural education program was developed and implemented through a partnership of teachers, teacher educators, and community members.

The two approaches, unit and infusion, are particularly valuable when used together. Because instructors were first interviewed and then attended the multicultural presentations in the unit approach, they became more cognizant of multicultural issues in general. Using their own areas of expertise, the instructors were then able to infuse specific content with a multicultural perspective. Because the project is still in its infancy, speculation as to its effectiveness is premature at this time. Results from pre and posttests on multicultural awareness given to students in the unit approach do indicate that the presentation builds a heightened level of understanding of multicultural issues.

Discussion

These approaches should be successful in revising the current special education program to reflect a more pluralistic approach to teacher training. The unit approach not only lifts a burden from the course instructor but offers an opportunity to discuss issues generated at the local level. The infusion approach further ensures that more general multicultural objectives will be incorporated into existing curricula.

It is imperative that teachers have adequate preparation and a degree of confidence necessary to meet the needs of exceptional children who come from ethnically and culturally diverse populations. Emphasis must focus on issues such as learning styles, communication variations, behavioral characteristics, values of culturally nontraditional children, and how these factors differ among various groups. The approaches described in the presentation should enable teachers to develop skills and acquire experience needed to be more successful in meeting the needs of all students.

References

American Association for Colleges of Teacher Education. (1973). No one model American. Journal of Teacher Education, 24, 4.

American Speech-Language-Hearing Association. (1987). Multicultural Professional Education in Communication Disorders: Curriculum Approaches. Rockville, MD: Author.

Baca, L. (1980). Issues in the education of culturally diverse exceptional children. Exceptional Children, 46, 583-588.

Cunningham, K., Cunningham, K., & O'Connell, J. C. (1986). Impact of differing cultural perceptions on special education service delivery. Rural Special Educatic Quarterly, 8(1), 2-8.

Diana v. California State Board of Education. Civil No. c-69-37, REP, United States District Court of Northern California, (1970).

Dunn, L. (1968). Special education for the mildly retarded--is much of justifiable? Exceptional Children, 35, 5-22.

Fradd, S., & Hallman, C. L. (1983). Implications of psychological and education research for assessment and instruction of culturally and linguistically different students. Learning Disabilities Quarterly, 6, 468-478.

Harber, J. R. (1980). Issues in the assessment of language and reading disorders in learning disabled children. Learning Disability Quarterly, 3, 20-28.

Helge, D. I. (1981). Problems in implementing comprehensive special education programming in rural areas. Exceptional Children, 47, 514-520.

Heller, K. A., Holtzman, W. H., & Messick, S. (Eds.) (1982). Placing children in special education: A strategy for equality. Washington, D. C.: National Academic Press.

Larry P. et al. v. Wilson Riles, Civil No. c-71-2270, REP, United States District Court of California, (1979).

Marrs, L. W. (1984). A bandwagon without music: Preparing rural special educators. Exceptional Children, 50, 334-342.

Mattie T. v. Holladay, 522 F. Supp. 72, (N.D. Mississippi, 1977).

Mercer, J. (1973). Labeling the mentally retarded. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (1979). Standards for the accreditation of teacher education. Washington, D. C.: Author.

Poplin, M. S., & Wright, P. (1983). The concept of cultural pluralism: Issues in special education. Learning Disability Quarterly, 6, 367-371.

Research Press (Producer). (1979). What's the difference being different? (Film). Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Rodriguez, F. (1982). Mainstreaming a multicultural concept into special education: Guidelines for teacher trainers. Exceptional Children, 49, 220-227.

Sher, J. P. (1981). Rural education in urbanized nations: Issues and innovations. Boulder, Co: Westview Press.

Smith-Davis, J., Burke, P. H., & Noel, M. M. (1984). Personnel to educate the handicapped in America: Supply and demand from a programmatic viewpoint. College Park, MD: University of Maryland, Department of Special Education, Institute for the Study of Exceptional Children and Youth.

Taylor, O. L. (1986). A cultural and communicative approach to teaching standard English as a second dialect. In O. L. Taylor (Ed.) Treatment of communication disorders in culturally and linguistically diverse populations (pp. 153-178). San Diego, CA: College-Hill.

David S. Barnes
Cheryle Barnes

Dare to Dream:
A Non-Categorical Service Delivery System

As we rapidly move toward the 21st Century, educational leaders at all levels must stand back and examine where we are going and the relevance of the educational system in the greater scheme of life. The major question is: "Are we meeting the needs of today's youth in preparing them for a rewarding and enriched life in society?". We must examine such major goal areas as: employment, worthy use of leisure time, enriched family life, and adequate problem solving skills. It is doubtful that these goals can be accomplished in the traditional academic classroom. Therefore, educators must indeed find many ways for classrooms and schools to interface with the rest of society in a meaningful way. This will become increasingly more important as we move into the next century, and has special significance in the field of Special Education. This is particularly true with fewer and fewer students dropping out of secondary schools and having expectations of employment upon completing their program. With this in mind, we must truly assess the nature and scope of current school programs. We must also assess how they fit the range of needs for the wide variety of students who remain in the secondary school and particularly in Special Education programs.

Educators must increase liaison with industry and the business community to supply added enrichment to educational programs and become involved in the integral core of educating students for the "real world". Employers are suggesting that young people they hire do not have an education relevant to the occupations that they have to offer them. With the explosion of technology, this can only become increasingly more true. Looking at the worlds of education and work, one certainly sees this in action. In preparing for certain occupations teachers are still using paper and pencil technology when employers in the real world are operating their business utilizing computers and lazers to accomplish the necessary tasks.

It is doubtful that educators and the educational system can keep up with all of these changes in technology and the only feasible change is to include employers as an integral part of the teaching scheme. This movement is not a new concept and has always been part of graduate study particularly in the fields of medicine, law, education, and other professions. However, at the present time, and in years to come, this must spread rapidly into other post-secondary and secondary school programs if education is to maintain relevance for students and employers in the 21st Century.

Not only is this concept of cooperative education essential for many students, but futurists are also predicting that jobs in the future will include more cottage industry types, small entrepreneurial business, and speciality businesses. These occupations will be centered around transfer of information and the offering of personal services. Schools of the future may by necessity have to include entrepreneurial aspects, such as teaching students to operate their own small businesses. Different educational skills will be needed by students for economic survival in the future.

As businesses and industries become more and more willing to accept handicapped employees including those with mental function handicaps, it will be increasingly important for schools to prepare students for employment in these various industries. This means, more specific job training, a liaison with a variety of local industries and certainly schools, along with parents and handicapped individuals, must play an advocacy role with the business community in each area.

The performance "myth" must be exploded. For example, educators must be aware of the excellent work record of handicapped already in industry and be able to point this out to prospective employers. In the 1981 DuPont Survey entitled "Equal to the Task", DuPont followed up on their 2,745 handicapped employees and compared them to their non-handicapped employees on three parameters. They learned that the handicapped employees had better overall performance records than did their non-handicapped employees in the areas of safety, job duties, and were only slightly lower in attendance. The low attendance record was considered normal since many of these individuals had severe medical problems and had to spend considerable time in hospitals and visiting specialists. Educators have a responsibility to make industry aware of the fine work records of the handicapped and to design programs to prepare them for entry into the world of work.

Carl Rogers, in his book "Freedom to Learn", states: "The only man who is educated is the man who has learned how to learn: the man who has learned how to adapt and change: the man who has realized that no knowledge is secure, that only the process of seeking knowledge gives basis for security.". With this in mind, educators must continue to design educational learning experiences for students which will have relevance in the world of today as well as the world of the future. Teaching today's technology will not adequately prepare students for life in tomorrow's world. We must teach them the thinking and adaptational skills necessary to feel a sense of security in a world where the rate of change is continually increasing.

The "back to basics" movement in the late 1970's and early 1980's was primarily aimed at curriculum content and emphasis in our schools. In the future however, the "back to basics" movement will be applied to teachers and schools and their ability to accept the responsibility for each child and to develop for him/her, an appropriate educational program. This program must center around the prevention of failure and increased self esteem. This may be perhaps the most significant way of counteracting feelings of frustration, futility, and hopelessness that prevade the outlook of many of today's youth. One need only look at statistics on the number of "learning disabled" young offenders in our prison system and the ever increasing number of adolescent and even childhood suicides in our society to be aware of the perceptions of many of our young people today.

Educators must continue to search for ways to make all students aware that regardless of their abilities, they are worthwhile human beings and have every right to be in our society and our schools. Not only do all students have a right to be in schools but they have a right to be there as first class citizens

and to be treated with respect and dignity and rewarded for those things that they can accomplish. Education must attend to all students' need for acceptance and security in an attempt to prevent and minimize many of the social ills plaguing our society today.

In the field of Special Education, new methods and techniques must be continually tried. Often it is not the child's lack of ability, but our lack of ability to reach the child, that is one of the major contributing factors to his lack of growth. Technology can be an aid in assisting teachers to reach students however, it cannot be looked upon as a replacement for the human interaction necessary for growth. The future will see practitioners using a variety of techniques such as yoga and meditation with students who, at the present time, are thought to be incapable of benefitting from these techniques.

The future will see an ever increasing movement away from the diagnostic labelling of children in order to qualify for funding. Perhaps at one stage of evolution, Special Education needed public law 94-142 in the United States. Its primary purpose was not however, to establish a model of service delivery, but to remind us all of the human rights of handicapped children and our responsibility as a society for funding an appropriate educational programs for them within our public schools.

In the United States, the National Association of School Psychologists have issued a position statement designed at reducing the rigidity of the current system of classification and placement utilized under public law 94-142.

In this statement, they point out the following major problems:

1. Children are being inappropriately diagnosed as handicapped and placed in Special Education due to:
   (a) lack of regular education options designed to meet their needs;
   (b) lack of understanding of diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds;
   (c) inadequate measurement technologies which focus on labels for placement rather than providing information for program development;
2. Labels are often irrelevant to instructional needs;
3. Funding mechanisms are dependent on labels in order for children to receive services;
4. Categories based on deficit labels are arbitrarily defined, particularly for mildly handicapped and low achieving students but which become accepted as "real" and which may prevent more meaningful understanding of the child's psycho-educational needs;
5. Reduced expectations for children who placed in special needs programs;
6. Assessment processes aimed at determining eligibility which often deflects limited resources from the determination of functional educational needs in the development of effective psycho-educational programs;
7. A decreased willingness on the part of regular education at times bordering on abdication of responsibility to modify curriculum and programs in order to better meet the diverse needs of all children.

In the same document, this Association states: "In view of these problems, and based upon the commitment to see that all children receive effective and

appropriate education, irrespective of race, cultural background, linguistic background, socio-economic state, or educational need, we believe:

1. All children can learn. Schools have a responsibility to teach them, and school personnel and parents should work together to assure every child a free and appropriate education in a positive social environment;
2. Instructional options based on the individual psycho-educational needs of each child, must be maximized within the general education, eliminating the need to classify children as handicapped in order to receive these services;
3. Psycho-educational needs of children should be determined through a multi-dimensional, non-biased, assessment process. This must evaluate the match between the learner and his/her educational environment, assessing the compatability of curriculum and system as they interact with the child, rather than relying on the deficit based model which places blame for failure within the child. Referral to the assessment and placement process must always relate directly to the services designed to meet the psycho-educational needs;
4. In addition to maintaining current protections for handicapped children, protections and safeguards must be developed to ensure the rights of children who are at risk for school failure and require services while remaining in general education without classification as handicapped.".

When a group who has benefitted dramatically from the passing of public law 94-142 in the United States, through increased number of jobs, increased salaries, and an increase in professional status; speak out against the evils of current practices in education and makes positive suggestions for future directions educators must take note.

The essential ingredient in delivering education services, whether classified as "regular" or "special" is teacher attitude and acceptance of children.

One of the basic principles then in establishing and constructing a system for the delivery of Special Education is that self esteem of students must be a priority.

The authors, in discussing the other considerations in system development, would suggest that like self esteem, other philosophical issues be dealt with prior to the establishment of policies, remembering that there is nothing quite as practical as a workable philosophy. The reason for this is that it makes future decision making much easier, whether it be global decisions regarding school board policy or individual decisions regarding children within the system. Following philosophical issues, the individuals concerned must deal with the needs and the strengths of the area and develop a model for the most comprehensive delivery of services to both "special needs" children and their parents. There is nothing more confusing to parents, teachers, and others, than to have many of their questions answered with seemingly unrelated policy statements and to have these statements treated as though they came down off the mountain in Moses' other hand. This leads to several considerations that must be dealt with in system development. First of all, the system must be simple and easy to understand by all individuals directly involved including: special

education teachers, regular classroom teachers, school administrators, parents, and school board members. The system must offer practical and concrete suggestions to all the individuals involved and must be capable of being utilized as a tool for the delivery of services as well as planning. The system, when developed, must be an integral and leading part of the community and not a separate entity unique to itself. The system must attempt to coordinate and utilize, not only educational facilities, but those facilities in the community such as home, church, and other agencies. The system should reflect modern thought in education and must, in some way, deal with "mainstreaming", parents rights, early identification of learning problems, and the "total child". The system must offer a continuum of services which provides a variety of methods and the right amount of "special help" so that each student requiring assistance receives it in the most appropriate way.

Two words we frequently use in our vocabulary are "rural" and "urban". They mean very different things to many people and have tended to be described in a variety of ways. Their meanings can be as diverse as: distance from a metropolitan centre, population, access to services, primary occupational groups and population density.

School systems have only, in fairly recent history, become concerned with access to services. Prior to this movement, children who could not fit into the traditional school system in any area, were excluded and it was parental responsibility to find alternative educational programs appropriate for their childrens' needs. This has changed and many of the services that school systems wish to access are not those directly offered by the schools themselves but those dealing with health services and social services of a specialized nature. It is these medical and specialized social services, not educational services, that tend to be centered in urban areas, making it more difficult for rural school systems to take advantage of them.

An additional complicating factor in the field of Special Education is that most of the Special Education programs that are in existence today also had their root in urban areas where Special Education programs were developed before those in rural areas. In the initial stages of the development of urban Special Education programs, many school districts insisted upon having specialists from medical fields involved in the establishment of the programs, as well as in selection committees, and as advisors and consultants to the teachers and others who worked in these programs. When the movement for "the right to an education for all children" moved into rural areas, rural school systems turned to their urban friends for a model to establish programs and policies. It soon became evident that this urban model could not be transferred directly because rural areas did not have the pediatric neurologists, child psychiatrists, educational audiologists, and a raft of other specialized professionals to rely on for the development and maintenance of their Special Education programs. It also became evident that when specialists were available, they were used more as consultants rather than delivering direct service to children. The specialist role in rural systems became one of assessment of children and developing programs to be delivered by parents, teachers, aids, and volunteers.

A further distinction between the delivery of services in an urban system and a rural system is the "ownership of the program". Urban areas tend to have a larger Central Office staff and often take a majority of the responsibility for supervision of classes and programs within individual schools. In rural areas, the principal of the school must accept ownership of and responsibility for the program and rely more upon Central Office staff as consultants to assist themselves and teachers in making their programs operate effectively as possible.

Due to the specialized nature of many classes which were established in urban areas, it often has been difficult to move students out of these classes. This often is because of fear on the part of regular classroom teachers. As a result many urban areas have not moved as rapidly to place as many children as possible in the least restrictive environment. Often teachers in rural areas have had a great deal more experience working with "special" children because there were no alternatives. In addition to this, many of them have had experience in multi-level classrooms and providing the specialized services such as art, music, and physical education, than have their urban counterparts.

Many of the foregoing statements and examples are generalizations. However, it is felt that Special Education programs, must develop their own model based on an assessment of the strengths in each community and find methods to mobilize these strengths in order to develop the best possible program. It is indeed easy to look at what the small community lacks and use this as a basis for not delivering as many services as possible for "special" children and their parents. One must remember the motto of the Christophers', "It is better to light one candle than to curse the darkness". Earlier, it was pointed out that many rural areas center upon their weakness, which is primarily, "lack of specialized services", both within the educational system and in the areas of health and social service facilities. Some important strengths that can be found in rural areas are: 1. a more stable population base; 2. a greater sense of community; 3. more person to person communication among both professionals and parents. These strengths can be utilized in developing service delivery models in rural areas.

The development of a new model of Special Education delivery is extremely difficult in areas where there are established systems, especially one that is based on a great many special classes for children with a variety of diagnostic labels. In addition to this, the passage of public law 94-142 in the United States has led to the lumping of children with like diagnostic labels into special schools and special classes often without enough consideration to their unique learning styles and strengths as individuals. The maintenance of this system in many states is rationalized by many individuals who feel that if it is not followed, money will not be available. This has proven to be false in the State of Massachusetts where it is now illegal to label a child but one may describe a child's learning and behavior and still offer adequate services.

The lack of integration between regular education and special education has also increased the labeling process to the point of making educators believe that this is the only way in which children can receive the special kind of

assistance they need. Dr. Laurence Lieberman, in his book "Preventing Special Education....for Those Who Don't Need It", states that current educational research and literature is replete with reference to overkill in every facet of Special Education service delivery: referrals, testing, programming, conferencing, paper work, diagnosing, labeling, and above all, promoting Special Education as the means by which regular education problems are solved. Second, only to this contention, by many associated with education, that the vast majority of children having school based problems do not have anything inherently wrong with them.".

The authors firmly believe that both principals and teachers must first and foremost have a mission of service to all of their students. In addition, they must have the ability to conceptualize the present functioning of their students and to assist them in establishing realistic future goals. Teachers must learn to evaluate themselves in terms of reducing the gap between their goals and their actual teaching practices.

Teachers whose classroom practices are in line with their goals and philosophy usually achieve much greater job satisfaction than teachers with wide discrepancies between their goals and their practices. Job satisfaction is an important aspect in preventing teacher "burn out" and in increasing the self-esteem of teachers. It is difficult for a teacher with poor self-esteem to effectively assist students toward increased self-esteem.

As special educators, we must begin to recognize that we are not a system onto ourselves, any more than a school is a system that exists outside a community and that we are all part of a much bigger holistic design to help children to develop to their fullest potential in all ways possible.

The authors therefore suggest that all traditional labels be dropped in establishing the service delivery system for a school district. Although this may not be practical in some places because funding is based on using these labels, it is certainly a goal to aim for. Some states have already passed legislation making it illegal to use these labels in regards to children. The cascade model of service delivery certainly is a helpful tool in viewing the levels of service required by students at any particular time. These levels must, however, be used on an individualized basis with students and not become a replacement for traditional categories such as multi-handicapped, TMH, EMH, LD, etc. The authors suggest that in rural areas, they have had considerable success in working with the system that categorizes children as highest need, high need, and other needy children. These labels descriptive of the childs level of independent functioning at any given time. As simple as this seems, it is easily understood by professionals and laypersons as well and is descriptive of the level of service required for students rather than based on more traditional diagnostic labels. This system also allows for more flexibility in planning and movement of children as their level of independent functioning improves. This concept is certainly not new. As far back as 1971, James Mooney, Director of Diagnostic Services for the Northern Suburban Special Education District in Illinois, presented a paper entitled "Softening of the Categories" in which he stated "traditions, even when made of clay, tend to

become hardened over time". Mooney further states that efforts to soften the categories, lead to improved models for Special Education programming. The avoidance of medical - psychological labels in educational practice help educators focus more on each child's individual needs rather than on common needs of a group of children having a similar defect or problem.

In the development of a model, certainly mainstreaming must be dealt with as a major philosophical issue. The term "mainstreaming" is not only a philosophical issue, but in many communities, has become and emotional issue. This has polarized many groups and school systems and prevented the development of the types of services that people would like to see for children having "special needs".

There are several significant reasons for school boards to move toward increasingly more mainstreaming. Firstly, it is a model of democracy which is created by establishing an educational environment where the worth and dignity of each student is acknowledged, and where individual differences are recognized and accepted. Also, it is a means for educating disabled children in an environment that most closely resembles the real world. Regular program students receive experience with students they are not likely to meet in a society where the disabled are segregated. Segregated programs and institutions have had minimal success. Labeling and segregating exceptional children increases their distinct categorization and stigmatization.

In addition to the foregoing considerations and philosophical issues, the Special Education model of services must consider and deal with the following: the school's role in prevention, which is effective liaison with pre-school programs, medical personnel, social service personnel, and other community agencies who are all interested in the welfare of children and their families. In addition to this, they must deal with some form of pre-school evaluation and screening designed, not to label children, but to understand and assist them in their development. Although in many places, programs for pre-school handicapped are available, there are many rural areas where this is not true. It is suggested that educators, as the largest professional group in any community, become involved in establishing a variety of pre-school programs to prevent the need for additional Special Education Services when children enter the school system. This may be accomplished by school boards offering professional support to these programs, or by local teacher unions or associations giving financial and professional support.

Each school board, in developing a system of service delivery, must deal with both pre-referral and referral procedures. There have been many suggestions in dealing with pre-referral procedures such as teacher assistance teams, and in-school Special Education committees to assist teachers who have children with learning problems in the classroom and to eliminate unnecessary referrals for complete and formal assessment. Once this has been dealt with, a procedure for referrals can be established.

In education, parents, as well as students, are consumers and must be treated with respect and dignity. Parents must be involved with Special Education programs from the moment of referral on. Having lived with their own children

for several years, they certainly can give valuable information regarding the child, his/her strengths and weaknesses, and his/her development over the years. They must be involved in the program planning and decision making concerning appropriate placement (legislated by public law 94-142 in the United States) but a healthy practice in other parts of the world. Parents should also be involved in programming and evaluation as well as establishing goals and objectives for their children.

Hopefully, the initial case conference following assessment should include the parents, the school principal or other pertinent administrator, the classroom teacher, the Special Education teacher, and the individual responsible for assessment. During this case conference, a program should be planned for each student containing a home program, a classroom teacher program, and if necessary, a tutorial program as well as available community programs that would assist the child in his development.

The aspects for consideration up to this point do not differ from urban to rural areas; however, when considering community programs mentioned previously, school personnel may have to take a leadership role within the community to develop necessary programs to assist children having special needs. The authors suggest the following:

1. a primary prevention program in cooperation with local hospitals and/or public health department;
2. specialized and regular summer camps;
3. adapted recreation programs;
4. comprehensive volunteer programs;
5. more adequate and indepth inservice programs for both Special Education and regular classroom teachers;
6. development of parent support groups and parent support programs;
7. giving needed consultation and expertise to pre-school programs and nursery schools;
8. a comprehensive program of public relations so that the general public and local professionals are aware of what you are attempting to accomplish.

In establishing a service delivery model for any school district, team work is of the utmost importance. No one person or group has all of the skills or energy to put meaningful programs into operation. The school board and senior administration of the school system must be fully informed and supportive of all areas of the program. School principals who are responsible for daily supervision and such implementation must feel that their concerns are being addressed and that their thoughts and feelings are considered in the overall planning. Parents of students must have adequate opportunities to have changes in the system explained to them and an opportunity to ask questions and make suggestions and comments. Staff feelings, both special educators and regular class teachers, must be solicited and dealt with as appropriately as possible. In addition to staff feelings, the evaluation and placement of staff in most appropriate positions is certainly a high priority consideration in the development of any system. It often seems like a paradox when administrators talk about individualization of instruction for children and yet expect all staff to function equally. Administrators have the responsibility to recognize

individual strengths and weaknesses of staff and place them in the most appropriate positions. When requiring change of position of staff, they must be given adequate support and training so that they might make the greatest contribution to the program. Teachers often become extremely frustrated when they have good ideas and are not given support or freedom to implement them. Many valuable programs and some of the best ideas result from the interest and skills of individual staff members who are given necessary support and encouragement in trying out their new ideas. It may truly be said that "teacher burnout" is not the result of overwork but of feelings of frustration and impotence. The final team member that must be dealt with is the Special Education administrator whose role and responsibility is to plan, dialogue, and revise the basic system of service delivery for the school district.

John Beard
Project Coordinator
Project SCORE
Humboldt Unified School Dist.
Drawer A
Dewey, Arizona 86327

This presentation outlines and analyzes the development, implementation, and completion of a three year Federally funded model demonstration project designed to refine a cooperative transition model for junior and senior high school special education students in an Arizona rural school district. Strategies that impact positively on students, school, employers and community will be presented. Recommendations relative to curriculum design, work experience, staff development, school-community relations, and replication of the model will be discussed. Finally, the overall effectiveness of this model will be presented and analyzed.

The following project objectives will be discussed in detail during the presentation:

1. Develop and infuse a functional school-based vocational curriculum and training component within the existing special education curriculum. (Curriculum chosen and implemented is the Life Centered Career Education Curriculum developed by Donn Brolin, University of Missouri, Columbia.),

2. Develop and implement a supervised work experience component wherein handicapped youth work in the private sector,

3. Establish a Rural Interagency Council. (Advisory Council),

4. Establish replication site for model,

5. Disseminate project findings and advertise availability of project products.

In conjunction with the above objectives, several project findings, results and recommendations are presented below and will be discussed in detail, along with others, during the presentation. They are:

a. networking with community and state agencies directly concerned with transition, job development, and related services is critical to the students' transitional success. Those agencies of particular value to the project and essential to maintain ongoing linkages with are: Arizona Dept. of Economic Security, Northern Arizona Council of Governments, Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) programs, local/area LEA's, Vocational Rehabilitation Services, Chambers of Commerce and several others;

b. assigning graduation credit for participation in work experience is essential, however, it is best to maintain flexibility in this process to account for student differences, hours worked, length of time in program and other variables;

c. early afternoon release for students in work experience proves to be the best practice to avoid major scheduling conflicts;

d. It is essential to "educate" employers as to the benefits to the community of hiring persons with disabilities. Ongoing and direct personal contact with employers is essential;

e. Infusion of functional curriculum requires a long term effort and the provision of extensive training/inservice and staff support. It needs to be made part of the existing curriculum, not an additional component of it;

f. the Rural Interagency Council (RIC) functioned well as a feedback mechanism in reviewing program operation and status;

g. identification and selection of replication site would have been enhanced by on-site visits to appropriate LEA's, as opposed to strictly a mail/phone contact and survey.

Other critical issues, including transportation, job development, job performance evaluations, employer and parent feedback, and work site selection will be discussed in this presentation.

The nature of a rural community such as Humboldt necessitates a gradual developmental process where each step builds on what has already been established. It will prove critical to do a careful analysis of the entire community when initiating a replication effort of the project.

David Bell
Crabaugh Hall
Arkansas Tech University
Russellville, Arkansas
72801

Georgine Steinmiller
Henderson State University
Arkadelphia, Arkansas
71923

Anticipating the 21st Century: Avoiding the Teacher Shortage

INTRODUCTION:

During the past years, the dialogue about teacher supply and demand has sparked a great deal of controversy. Both The Holmes report, Tomorrow's Teacher's and the Carnegie report, A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century emphasize the central role of teachers and indicate an impending nationwide shortage of teachers during the coming decade. Few educational issues have caused as much concern as those relating to teacher supply and demand.

In recent years there has been a steady decline of people entering teaching programs. Analysis of this decline reveals that the shift is away from education and social sciences into more technical fields. In many cases education loses out to other higher status, higher-paying career choices. This decline is further aggravated by the number of teachers who hold certification to teach but who elect to seek other employment. The number of recent degree recipients certified to teach but not teaching are much greater than the number electing teaching with or without certification. Furthermore, about 25% of newly prepared teachers select fields other than teaching.

The steady decline of people electing teaching is coupled with an increasing number of teachers who are taking early retirement. It is predicted that in the south 1/3 or more of the teachers are veterans with 25 or more years experience and they are rapidly approaching retirement. These unfavorable trends are compounded with other problems including low salaries, decreased job satisfaction, and lack of societal respect. All of these factors cause teachers to leave the classroom and pursue other careers. The teacher shortage is in fact a very real problem. The latest report from the National Education Association indicates that 37 states reported a critical shortage in at least one region and in at least one curricula area (N.E.A.,1986).

Across the nation, one particularly acute problem for rural schools is a personnel shortage. It is significant that one third of all students live in rural America, and that rural schools comprise 67 percent of all schools in the United States. Rural schools report the recruiting and retraining of qualified staff are significant impediments in providing services (Helge, 1983). Developing more refined recruitment strategies is critical to solving

the problems rural schools are going to face as they compete for quality personnel. The key is to develop strategies at the local level that specifically reflects the needs and uniqueness of the local district. Recruiters could focus on positive attributes of small communities such as friendliness, potential for status, small enrollments, and administrative support. Teachers must be located who possess characteristics which are congruent with the needs of the rural school. These usually include teachers who are

* able to adjust to the community in terms of life style
* willingness to teach students with a wide range of abilities
* prepared to supervise several extracurricular activities
* and certified to teach in more than one subject matter area or grade.

RECRUITMENT IDEAS:

The purpose of this paper is to outline ideas at the national, state, university, and local level that may be used to recruit and retain teachers for work in rural areas. A search of the literature reveals successful programs that provide options or ideas that may be used to enhance recruitment efforts.

Some suggestions in use across the country for improved recruitment include:

1. Using two year colleges as a pool for potential students.
2. Providing job and scholarship assurance programs for students.
3. Bringing high school students into a tutorial situation.
4. Providing programs to welcome prospective members to the teaching fraternity at an earlier stage, as early as the middle school grades.
5. Encouraging students already in a university setting to switch or complete enough hours for certification.
6. Running television spots featuring teaching as a rewarding profession.
7. Reminding students that teaching can lead to management positions.
8. Providing a statewide support program.
9. Implementing a teacher cadre at the middle school level.
10. Constructing a high school teacher /mentor program.
11. Teaching a college university freshman and sophomore career seminar program.
12. Providing forgivable loans.

A sample plan for a rural state might include the following:

1. Creating a senior level position in the state department of education with the primary function of recruitment and retention of educators.
2. Developing a program to make the public aware of the seriousness of the problem.
3. Establishing a grant of $2000 per year to 150 new students per year entering institutions of higher education and who plan to pursue teacher education programs. These may be renewed for a second year. Eligibility-teach rural areas, first time freshmen in teacher education, academic potential based on standardized tests and high school grades, and completion of selected courses in high school.
4. Establishing scholarship grants of $3000 per year to 100 new students. May be renewed for a second year.

5. Funding summer enrichment programs at colleges and universities such as YOU and Upward Bound for intermediate and junior high school students.
6. Providing funding for counseling of rural students and development of a comprehensive support system for rural students while in college.
7. Providing financial assistance to enter and remain in teaching.
8. Raising salaries to regional averages.
9. Sponsoring summer teaching institutes.
10. Providing low interest loans to teachers willing to teach in rural areas.

A university that would like to recruit and train teachers for work in rural areas might consider the following:

1. Providing scholarships for incoming freshman who declare majors in education and who meet specified standards.
2. Targeting schools with high percentages of rural students.
3. Providing extensive and intensive recruiting of students in targeted schools.
4. Offering scholarships to upper level majors.
5. Providing on-campus visits of intensive and innovative experiences for prospective recruits.
6. Identifying key persons in communities with high concentration of rural students. Locate university graduates to assist.
7. Soliciting cooperation from significant groups in the communities, Greek, civic, service, and churches.
8. Soliciting cooperation from student groups.
9. Inviting representatives of targeted groups on campus for special appreciation and orientation sessions.
10. Inviting high school counselors to recommend students with potential for teaching.
11. Recruiting students from community colleges. Improve cooperation between university and community college personnel.
12. Providing opportunities for high school students to visit the campus for brief periods in order to learn about university life through first-hand experiences. During the visits, students might spend time in classes, talk to current students in the program, find out about financial aid and application procedures, and participate in campus social activities.
13. Working to ensure that students presently enrolled in teacher education on campus are successful and satisfied. Additional things that might be done for students:
    a. provide for positive press releases of majors in hometown newspapers.
    b. provide for regular articles to appear in campus paper about education majors.
    c. create a education student advisory council.
    d. encourage a student "replacement" campaign. The purpose of this campaign is to encourage each education major to recruit another student to take his/her place in the program by the time the student graduates.
14. Developing and implementing pre-collegiate programs in the schools. Let academically talented youngsters register as guest students while in high school with the understanding that courses taken will count for degree credit upon their admission.
15. Initiating informational programs about the teacher education program in targeted communities and schools.

16. Establishing a toll free line to call to obtain information about the school of education.
17. Developing a network with elementary and secondary teaching associations.
18. Hosting "College for Kids" programs during the summer or designated weekends for youngsters.
19. Developing feeder schools in an effort to create a tradition of students from the feeder school attending the university and enrolling in the teacher education program.
20. Directing contact with youngsters in middle school and maintain contact as they progress through high school.
21. Contacting parents and encourage them to encourage their children to think about choosing teaching as a career.
22. Holding a "Day of Pride" on campus and invite outstanding students to attend and thus be recognized for their accomplishments.

Some strategies in use at the local level include:

1. Subsidizing cost of teacher retraining to meet local needs.
2. Pay the cost of teacher earning a masters degree and teacher commits to staying for three years after obtaining the degree.
3. Identify outstanding juniors in education at the university and begin to recruit at this level.
4. Involve community groups with recruiting efforts.
5. Consider retention strategies such as paying professional dues.

CONCLUSIONS:

The real solution may not be reallocation of able students but the development of strategies to increase the potential pool of students who complete college and to examine ways to recruit from alternate pools not currently tapped for teacher education. Universities to be successful must begin to seek students several years before they will be ready to consider teaching careers. Hillary Clinton believes this shortage of teachers is not a failure of higher education, but unfortunately is the result of the twelve year educational system which fails to instill in disadvantaged children the belief that they can succeed. There is a need to develop a program in kindergarten to foster self-worth and a sense of whether they are going to make it or not. Dr. Hornbeck, Maryland State Superintendent of Schools, also sees 3 and 4 years olds from poor families as a key to the long-term expansion of the potential recruitment pool for future teachers.

We must begin to match our liberal arts and science programs with what students will be tested on and modifications of the curriculum such as five year programs must be studied carefully. They greatly increase the cost of entering education while most existing salary structures do not adequately compensate for this extra year of training. State competency tests of basic skills must be examined as they communicate to students that only prospective teachers, as opposed to those planning to enter other professions, require testing for mundane skills. State certification requirements that make no difference whatsoever in the quality of teaching while increase bureaucratic costs of the educational enterprise must be removed.

The root of the problem is the public perception that teachers don't do anything very sophisticated. This is reinforced by the working conditions we impose on teachers. How many true professionals have parking lot duty this week? The problems of attracting larger numbers of minorities to the teaching profession are part and parcel of the larger problems such as the reward structures and negative attitudes toward the profession. To adequately address the issues will require us to overcome our educational myopia and stop attempting to heal broken legs with band-aids.

Reference Notes

The American Teacher. (1987). Survey conducted for Metropolitan Life Insurance Company New York: Louis Harris and Associates, Inc.

Barnes, G.T.: Bass, C.C., and Wakeford, M.E. (1986). Teacher Supply and Demand in North Carolina Public Schools.

Bell, M.L., and Morsink, C.V. (1986). Quality and equity in the preparation of Black teachers. Journal of Teacher Education, 37 (2), 10-15.

Carter, Carol. (1988). Black Female Students: Issues and Considerations for Teachers of Teachers. Educational Considerations 15 (1) pp 31-36.

Collison, M. N-K (1987). Colleges try new techniques in fierce competition for black students. Chronicle of Higher Education, June 10, pp 1, 31-32.

Edelson, Edward. (1987). People Curricula, Equipment ..., Mosaic 18:1, Spring Washington, D.C.: National Science Foundation.

Feistritzer Publications. (1987). AACTE unveils minority teacher recruitement strategy. Teacher Education Reports, 9 (24), pp 1-4.

Fields, C.M. (1987). What works: California's Minority Engineering Program. Chronicle of Higher Education, September 30, p 33.

Haberman, Martin. (1988). Proposal for Recruiting Minority Teachers: Promising Practices and Attractive Detours. ED29760.

Hackley, L.V. (1985). The decline in the number of Black teachers can be reversed. Educational Measurements: Issues and Practice, 4 (3), 17-19.

Helge, D. I. (1983). Increasing Preservice Curriculum Accountability to Rural Handicapped Populations. Tease. 6:137-142.

Heller, S. (1988). Some colleges find aggressive affirmative action efforts are starting to pay off, despite scarcity of candidates. Chronicle of Higher Education, February 10, pp 12, 16-17.

Henniger, M.L. (1987). Recruiting students at the high school level: The Education Week Experience. Action in Teacher Education, 8 (4), pp 15-17.

Hodgkinson, H.L. (1985). All one system - Demographics of education, kinuergarten through graduate school, Washington, D.C.: Institute for Educational Leadership.

Imig, David. (1987). Unedited Summary Comments of the National Invitational Conference on Recruitment and Retention of Minority Students in Teacher Education, University of Kentucky, March 30.

McCurdy, Jack. (1987). Teacher Education Reforms Move Ahead, but Movement Faces Skeptics and Problems. Chronicle of Higher Education; 33 (37), p 23, May.

Mills, J.R. (1984). Addressing e seperate-but-equal predicament in teacher preparation: A case stud Journal of Teacher Education, 35 (6), 18-23.

Mingle, James R. (1987). Focus on Minorities: Trends in Higher Education Participation and Success. Denver: Education Commission of the State and the State Higher Education Executive Officers.

Myers, Henry A.; and Others. (1984). Critical Research Issues in Post-s[illegible]condary Edu[illegible]cation in the 1980's. ED242252.

National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). A Nation at Risk. Washington, D.C.

Smith, A.P. and Clary, J.R. (1987). Leadership Institute for Minority Youth. North Carolina State University: unpublished manuscript.

National Education Association. (1986). Teacher Supply and Demand. Washington, D.C.

State Higher Education Executive Officers and the Education Commission of the States. (1987). Focus on minorities synopsis of state higher education initiatives. Denver, CO.

Tanner, D.[illegible]. (1986). New directions in minority teacher education? Action in Teacher Education, 8(1), 13-17.

Teacher Education Reports, (1987). 9:24. Washington, DC: Feistritzer Publication, December 17.

Yakima Public Schools. (n.d.). Yakima Futures Projects, Yakima, Washington: unpublished manuscript.

Michael Bodensteiner
Regional Prevention Director
Southeast Kansas Education
Service Center
Box 189
Girard, Kansas 66743

Meeting the Prevention Needs of Rural School Districts*

Introduction

Recent demographic, technological, and social changes have forced public education to assume many responsibilities that have been the traditional role of parents and the family. Evidence of these changes is best illustrated by the wide range of social issues being addressed by rural school districts. Issues that can be taken from a list which includes, but is not limited to teenage pregnancy, Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS), substance abuse and school-aged dropouts are representative of the type of problems that confront rural school districts. In a limited sense, these issues can place school officials in a tenuous public relations stance while responding to patron pressures regarding local concerns or problems. From a much broader perspective, these issues contribute to the ever expanding role of public education in the overall socialization of youth (Elias and Clabby, 1988; Wynne and Walberg, 1985-86; Stephens, 1981).

The shear number of social trends to which public education must respond is problematic for rural school districts. Much of the difficulty stems from the multifaceted nature of social problems and the lack of resources to assist rural school districts in implementing programs that meet the social and academic needs of students. Of equal concern is the fact that issues such as human sexuality and AIDS education are accompanied by a wide range of social, moral, and legal implications. This creates difficulty for school officials in establishing curricula that recognizes differences in community and individual definitions of appropriate instructional programs.

*Publication Pending
Bodensteiner, Michael C. "Meeting the Prevention Needs of Rural School Districts," Rural Educator, Vol. II, #1; Fall, 1989.

Rural school districts also face a number of issues when considering the adoption of any type of social issues or prevention curriculum. These issues tend to fall within one of two general areas. The first regards funding for prevention programs. Despite state and local pressures to implement prevention curricula, many school districts must contend with budget constraints which limit the feasibility of adopting many commercial programs. The need to reduce existing instructional services in order to accommodate prevention programs creates an unfortunate dilemma for many school districts. The second issue relates to the plethora of instructional materials and programs that are available to rural school districts. Identifying appropriate curricula that includes adequate staff training and instructional media support is made extremely difficult due to the overwhelming number of programs that are currently marketed. Related to this issue is the need for school officials to endorse prevention instruction that is consistent with district curricular goals and objectives and the values of the community.

In response to recent educational trends, the Southeast Kansas Education Service Center (ESC)-Greenbush, has established five projects designed to facilitate the implementation of comprehensive prevention programming in predominately small rural school districts. Although each of these projects maintains distinct programming objectives, they are related in the sense that they coordinate the prevention efforts of a large number of Kansas school districts. This coordination allows for a wide range of prevention and instructional services to be available to rural school districts that would otherwise be unavailable due to cost or limited availability. The importance of local autonomy with respect to curricular decisions is also a central component of each ESC prevention project. To this end, project services have been designed to give school districts instructional options to those issues which may be construed as sensitive or controversial. Elements of human sexuality education such as the teaching of body parts and contraception are probably the most vivid examples of instructional areas that require decision making at local level. The overriding goal of this approach is to encourage local involvement and flexibility regarding instructional development, without sacrificing the integrity of effective prevention programming.

Prevention projects operated by the Southeast Kansas Education Service Center have evolved into a comprehensive support system which assists schools with the implementation of health and prevention services. Specific services that are provided range from administrator and teacher inservice training to the acquisition and dissemination of high quality audiovisual materials through an established Instructional Media Center. The end result of these efforts has been the establishment of prevention programming that is supported by trained district staff and is accompanied by diverse instructional services.

Staff Development and Training

The first step in the implementation of comprehensive prevention programming is that of staff development and training. Many elements of social issues instruction requires that educators have substantial information regarding specific youth oriented problems; as well as the theory and practice of life skills and prevention education. Staff development activities in Southeast Kansas are facilitated by the efforts of three consultants assigned to the Southeast Kansas Regional Prevention Program. Established in July of 1987, the Regional Prevention Program is one of seven prevention centers established as part of Governor Mike Hayden's Anti-Drug Abuse Plan. The Regional Prevention Program is partially funded under a grant from the Department of Social and Rehabilitation Services, Alcohol and Drug Abuse Services.

Specific staff development activities provided by prevention staff are designed to meet the unique needs of each of the 29 school districts served by the Regional Prevention Program. Teacher inservice is conducted at the ESC and also at the building level. Generally speaking, inservice training activities facilitate prevention instruction by reviewing classroom strategies that can be incorporated by teachers to prevent and reduce lifestyle related health problems. Inservice training typically focuses on four core areas including alcohol and drug information, life skills development, positive alternatives, and social policy. Research commonly identifies these areas as critical to the prevention of alcohol and drug abuse (Moskowitz, 1988).

Additional inservice training opportunities are made available through the Southeast Kansas Drug Free Schools and Communities Consortium. Comprised of forty-six rural school districts, this consortium is the result of districts pooling funds made available through the Drug Free Schools and Communities Act (1986). Inservice training provided through this project tends to focus on consortium-wide workshops conducted by state and national prevention consultants. The Drug Free Schools and Communities Consortium has also allowed for training in specific prevention programs developed by private foundations and other state agencies.

Together the Southeast Kansas Regional Prevention Program and the Drug Free Schools and Communities Consortium offer specific inservice training and technical assistance to over 2,500 teachers and 31,000 students of forty-six Kansas school districts. In addition, these programs have facilitated prevention training for over 2,000 teachers, parents, and community members throughout the 1987-88 school year.

Instructional Media

It is critically important that inservice training be supported with media and other forms of instructional support materials. The goal of assembling a Prevention and Health Audiovisual Library was assumed by the Southeast Kansas Drug Free Schools and Communities Consortium. The purpose of this library is to provide access to current, high quality instructional media and computer software in the areas of life skills development, health, and substance abuse prevention. Without the cooperative effort of consortium members, a majority of instructional materials that are currently included in the library would not be available due to high costs. In fact, it is anticipated that by 1989, the Prevention and Health Audiovisual Library will include instructional materials in excess of $70,000.00.

A unique feature of the Prevention and Health Prevention Library is the manner in which it has been integrated into the ESC Instructional Media Center (IMC). The IMC serves Southeast and Central Kansas with a media loan library. The purpose of the IMC is to provide a collection of high-cost media to primarily small rural school districts. The IMC has evolved from a basic film library to include comprehensive instructional television programs, computer software, science materials, and other instructional support programs to benefit students and educators. Over 5,000 titles of the most current instructional media are disseminated to 3,000 teachers in sixty-five school districts through delivery vans and established mail-out system.

Curriculum and Instruction

Staff and budget limitations prohibit many rural school districts from actually developing and obtaining curricula which addresses current issues which impact youth. In light of these constraints, the ESC established the Healthy Living Prevention Curriculum Project. The Healthy Living Curriculum is a Kindergarten through twelfth grade model which integrates instruction in the areas of life skills, alcohol and drug information, and human sexuality and AIDS. By integrating a number of social issues that impact youth, the goal of the Healthy Living Curriculum is to promote healthy lifestyles and reduce destructive behaviors. Specific component goals include: 1) to develop effective life skills; 2) to develop an understanding of the effects of alcohol and drug use; and, 3) to promote an awareness of human sexuality and AIDS as well as other sexually transmitted diseases.

Instruction included in the Healthy Living Curriculum has been designed in such a way that it may be modified and adapted to meet the curricular goals and objectives of local school districts. The advantage of such an approach is that teachers and curriculum committees can easily identify and implement comprehensive prevention instruction that otherwise would be very difficult or expensive. Of equal importance is the fact that the Healthy Living Curriculum includes specific grade level training that is provided by ESC prevention consultants. In addition, the curriculum includes access to a wide range of audiovisual materials that are available through the ESC Instructional Media Center. The training and audiovisual support greatly enhances the ability of teachers to effectively deliver prevention instruction. There are currently fifty-six Kansas school districts and educational agencies that participate in the Healthy Living Curriculum Project.

Additional Services and Concerns

Special Education

Virtually every definition of high risk and at risk students includes reference to special education students. This has created an interesting paradox in the fact that there are very few instructional materials and training opportunities that specifically address the unique needs of special education students. With the assistance and input of the four Southeast Kansas special education cooperatives, a Special Education Prevention Project was established to address the wide range of issues that surround the delivery of prevention instruction to students with special needs.

The Special Education Prevention Project provides contributions to prevention programming in two distinct, but nonetheless related areas. The first contribution is related to the modification of the Healthy Living Prevention Curriculum for identified exceptionalities. An important component of this objective is working closely with the curriculum and advisory committees of the four special education agencies in Southeast Kansas to insure that the modifications will meet local student and community needs. The second contribution is related to specific staff development activities designed to assist special and regular education staff to expand the quality and quantity of human sexuality, alcohol and drug, and other forms of prevention instruction provided to special education students.

Utilization of Technology

The increased utilization of compact disc and other forms of technology is rapidly becoming part of mainstream education. The application of this technology represents the means to greatly expand the effectiveness of prevention instruction.

A unique means to apply technology of health instruction is found in the Life Education Center Mobile Unit, the latest prevention project established by the ESC in the fall of 1988. The LEC Mobile Unit is a 36-foot trailer designed specifically to travel from school to school as a mobile classroom. The LEC Mobile Unit is equipped with high technology teaching aids to present a wide range of health and substance abuse prevention programming. Instruction in the LEC Mobile Unit is delivered by a certified elementary education teacher who travels with the unit. In addition to the direct instruction that is provided to students, the LEC teacher represents an invaluable resource that assists educators at the building level.

The primary goal of the LEC Mobile Unit is to expand and enhance existing health and prevention instruction in Southeast Kansas. It is particularly noteworthy that instructional programs delivered in the Mobile Unit will complement inservice training and curriculum services provided by the Southeast Kansas Drug Free Schools and Communities Consortium and the Healthy Living Curriculum Project. While the LEC Mobile Unit is not a comprehensive prevention program, it does represent the means to augment a district's prevention programming and provide additional support to students and staff while utilizing the most current education technology. The LEC Mobile Unit currently serves over 13,000 students in grades kindergarten through fourth in thirty-two Southeast Kansas school districts.

Summary and Discussion

Rural school districts face social issues that are both varied and complex. The approach of the Southeast Kansas Education Service Center has been to establish a wide range of prevention services to accommodate the unique needs of rural school districts. This recognizes the importance of district autonomy with respect to curriculum and programming decisions that surround prevention education.

Each of the prevention projects operated by the ESC have been developed through cooperative efforts of a number of rural school districts. The benefits of this cooperation lies in the ability of the ESC to offer services and materials that otherwise would not be available. This addresses the limitations that face many rural districts in terms of gaining access to instructional materials and training that specifically deals with the range of social issues that face public education. The manner in which district prevention efforts have been coordinated and consolidated could undoubtedly serve as a model for other education agencies that provide services on a regional and state-wide basis.

Additional benefits of ESC prevention projects originate from the manner in which services respond to recent social and economic trends. There exists a pervasive need to prepare students to effectively cope in an increasingly complex society. As rural school districts continue to be asked to respond to a wide range of social and health issues, the need to expand prevention instruction in a thorough and cost-effective manner will continue.

References

Elias, Maurice J. and John F. Clabby. "Teaching Social Decision Making," *Educational Leadership*, 6:52-55; March, 1988.

Moskowitz, Joel M. "The Primary Prevention of Alcohol Problems," Prevention Research Center, Berkeley, CA, 1988.

Stephens, T.M. "The Schools' Challenge in the 1980's," *The Directive Teacher*, 2:2; 1981.

Wynne, E. and H.J. Walberg. "The Complementary Goals of Character Development and Academic Excellence," *Educational Leadership*, 43:15-18; December, 1985 and January, 1986.

Five Year Teacher Education Programs:

Potential Impact on Rural Schools

Kay Sather Bull

Oklahoma State University

Paper presented at the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium Annual Conference, Ft. Lauderdale, FL, March 1989.

Calls for Educational Reform

Teachers, the newspapers would have us believe, are a mess. They can't do math, they can't write and collectively their feet stink. Kids coming out of schools today have the same problem. Plus they don't want to work, they don't have good values, they try drugs and booze and their morals are worse than alley cats. This is what the papers and television would have you believe.

Besides the sensationalism, there are several reasons why there are cries for reform in teacher education. These begin with student test scores, which are declining, or have declined in a variety of areas as more and more children, who did not in the past, take the tests. There is, for example a fairly strong correlation between declining test scores on the ACT/SAT and the increasing percentage of students who are going to college. This of course is intuitively obvious but in the hands of a reporter it shows that teachers are not as well trained as they used to be.

There is also a public backlash against schools because they do not teach the values that are typically adhered to by many conservatives. Therefore many say that kids are not being educated the way that they should be. This seems to be a particular complaint when the students involved are members of a different cultural or racial group. Another backlash comes from the political dimension. Politicians and political organizations are distrusted by the public. Other governmental entities are seen as untrustworthy, such as the CIA. This untrustworthyness has generalized to the schools. Political institutions cannot be trusted

therefore neither can teachers, is the essence here (Popkewitz, 1982).

Another often repeated problem, is that colleges of education recruit below average students (below average in the sense of test scores). However education is the largest employer of college graduates in the county, some three million of us are teachers. If all teachers were to be above average, where would we get doctors, engineers, architects, and so forth. This is a red herring. If it were economically possible to have all teachers be above average in terms of test scores there would not be enough graduates in other areas to fill the demand. As it is, if you eliminate those undergraduates who would have to go on to higher degrees before they could become professionals (those who skim the cream of the crop by having salaries 3 to 5 times higher than teachers at the entry level) medicine, law, and so forth, we would find that teachers are in fact around average, for the remainder.

This gives some indication of the reasons for the call for reform. This is not to say that reform is necessary only that there is a basis for the outcry. There are many who assert that what teaching needs is not reform but better public relations.

The History of Educational Reform

Those who have been involved with rural education for a long time (Bush, 1987) will recognize the potential hardships that reforms may cause for rural schools. Historically rural schools have had to make due with whoever was from the community who was marginally better educated than the students as the teacher. In the nineteenth century, most rural children

(elementary) were taught by a teacher who had at best a high school education. There were few secondary schools, except in towns. Even in town most of the teachers had had only one year of post-high school education; usually from a normal school or teacher's college. This caused an outcry for reform, after there were a great many schools (before that most were very glad to have a teacher, any teacher). The normal schools became teacher's colleges, first two-year and then four-year institutions (Tyler, 1985). Teachers slowly up graded their skills. In many communities the older teachers died off and were replaced by more qualified, younger ones. This is the way in which change takes place.

Teacher's colleges because they had not started off as liberal arts schools were looked down upon by others in the academic community. Teachers, because many did not have liberal arts degrees were not considered to be the equivalent of other college educated professionals (Schwebel, 1985). To improve their image many teachers colleges changed their names to drop teacher's college from their titles. Some became parts of university systems and began to call themselves universities. This took place in the 1960's and 1970's. At the same time the last of the normal school educated teachers were being retrained and upgraded, e.g., in North Dakota newly trained teachers went out to replace older teachers, in rural areas, so that the older teachers could come to campus and finish a bachelor's degree, this in the late 1960's and early 1970's. In many cases the thrust for consolidation of schools came about because administrators at the state department level said that the rural teachers were not

qualified.

We are still living with the label of unqualified teachers. Even though many, if not most teacaners have more than a four year degree, in the public schools. So again we hear the outcry, teachers need more training (in liberal arts content).

This reform thrust has led, over the past number of years to mandates in some states for tests for teachers to insure that they are qualified; tests for students to insure that they are minimally competent, which of course reflects on their teachers; and mandates for five year programs. Some five year programs involve supervision in a fifth year (like a practicum where you are paid, but not an independent teacher--e.g., Oklahoma) to a mandate that all teachers have a five year educational program, only a small part of which can be in teacher education, e.g., California and Texas; or to a program which says start with a degree in content and with a summer of teacher education training you can be a provisional teacher, if you will come back later and take more coursework, New Jersey and to some extent California.

So what do we face now? There have been a number of reform manifestoes in this decade. The first was, A Nation at Risk, the report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983). This was followed by Action for Excellence, by the Education Commission for the States (1983); Beyond the Commission Reports, (1984) Darling-Hammond; Tomorrow's Teacher, (1986) The Holmes Group; and A Nation Prepared, (1986) The Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy. These are only

some of the proposals for change in teaching and in teacher education. Saunders (1986) indicates that in three years (1983/86) more than 250 such reports were developed at national, state and local levels. Basically all of the conservative proposals call for movement toward more content, longer education for teachers and so forth. We will use the Holmes group proposal as an illustration to show the kinds of reforms that are proposed.

The Holmes Group Report

The report of the Holmes Group (1986) which is very similar to the Carnegie Report (1986) recommends the following changes in teaching and teacher education (Sedlak, 1987): (1) all teachers should have a bachelor's degree in a liberal arts content area, such as mathematics, science, literature, and so forth. This degree would be a prerequisite to admission to teacher education. The rationale is that teachers do not know a sufficient amount of content. This approach is presently done in Texas and California and is an option in New Jersey. Teachers are hired with only a BA and get pedagogy later. Shanker (1987) calls such teachers "labor day specials". (2) Following the BA/BS degree teachers should enroll in professional education leading to a master's degree. This, assuming that the degree could be completed in a single year, as proponents of the program advise, would reduce the amount of pedagogy involved in being a teacher without making content too much stronger. Included in this masters should be broad dissemination of the body of knowledge which is based on the empirical knowledge of teaching. (3) Included in the master's program would be a supervised internship in the public schools. This would

take place in a professional development school where the faculty would be affiliated with both the school and with the university. Most of the faculty would be career professionals (see career ladder) and would have Ed.D.'s. The professional development school would, we assume, be located near the campus of the university which may lead to some problems in terms of lack of diversity of student experiences. (4) All teachers would be required to take an exit examination (National Teacher Exam) which would test both content and pedagogical knowledge. This examination would be developed by a national committee composed of educators from the major research institutions (so that current research would be represented). (5) In addition to (4) above teacher education institutions should be more selective and raise the entry criteria to programs so that less intelligent and able persons are excluded from the teaching ranks. Many have proposed this, and, it should improve teaching if the less able are excluded. (6) There should be a career ladder for teachers. This varies across different proposals but all explicitly or implicitly imply something of this nature. The Holmes group wants three levels of teacher; the instructor, the professional teacher and the career professional. The instructor would have a degree in a content area and would have a limited amount of teacher education coursework. This person would teach under the supervision of a career teacher who would prepare the curriculum for him/her. The professional teacher would have a master's degree in teaching as well as a content degree. This teacher would be a fully functioning professional in the classroom. The career professional (no more

than 20% of the teaching ranks) would hold a doctoral degree in teaching (pedagogy?) and would be involved with school management, curriculum planning and other issues, related to teaching, that are now commonly done by administrative personnel (Johnson, 1987). The affect of this would be to eventually put more power in the hands of the teachers. (7) Only institutions which conduct research in teaching should be allowed to train teachers. To upgrade teaching and to make it into a profession teachers must receive a much higher level of educational experience than they presently do. Teachers must learn to be researchers and to create new knowledge about teaching. They can only be trained to do this in the major research institutions. (8) Finally all of this will make teachers more professional and will raise the level of salaries for all teachers. Teachers will have more control and more status.

Rural Teaching: Potential Problems

Teachers in rural placements need, according to some, e.g., Bull (in press), different kinds of training in teacher education than their urban counterparts. The Holmes/Carnegie initiatives specify a number of modifications which may cause problems in the small, rural, remote or isolated school setting.

Where will the teachers come from to serve the rural areas? The literature shows that it is best to recruit from those born and raised rural if you want them to go back to the rural to teach. However Muse (1977) states that rural children are less educated, more illiterate, are in schools with few resources with fewer buildings and low paid teachers. If we raise

the standards for teacher education how will this impact the recruitment and retention of teachers in rural schools?

According to Muse (1977) the proportion of rural youth who go to college is lower than the urban youth. They are farther away from schools, colleges, and departments of education, have fewer educational support systems and are narrower in experience. Typically the successful rural teacher goes to a small college, near her home and returns to the rural environment to teach. These data would indicate that the research institutions would have to change the way they recruit or some of the content that they teach if they are to provide an adequate supply of teachers to rural areas. That is, assuming that this is a goal of the predominantly urban research institutions.

An anlaysis of the geographic locations of the institutions who are members of the Holmes Group 1987-88 indicates that 85.5% are located in urban areas and the remainder 14.5% are in rural areas. Historically urban institutions prepare urban and suburban teachers and rural institutions prepare rural teachers. On this basis the rural outlook is not very good. Figure 1 shows one way in which this might look. Holmes group schools are in the center of each 100 mile diameter circle. Anyone not living within a circle is more than 50 miles from a major research institution.

Another possible problem deals with the academic major. Staffing patterns in small/rural schools often require teachers to prepare in a variety of areas outside of their college major, Muse (1977). Sher (1977), Muse (1977), and others imply that rural and small schools do not need

specialists, but rather they need generalists who are certified in many areas. Given the emphasis of the Holmes proposal, an academic major for all, the number of specialists will increase and the number of generalists will decrease. This should have significant impact on rural schools in the recruitment and retention process. Dunathan (1980) concurs with the need of teachers who can teach multiple subjects. He says that teacher education and state education agency officials have complied with the demand for specialists to the point that it is difficult to get a degree with more than one certification. Given the Holmes initiative this problem would be exacerbated.

Gardiner & Edington (1982) report that "In a nationwide questionnaire circulated by Charles (1969) to rural school teachers, he found that 97.4% felt that they were inadequately prepared to teach in rural schools. More recent studies done in Montana (Gardiner, 1982) and in New Mexico (Amodeo, 1982) have reached similar results." This would seem to provide support for the reforms proposed by the Holmes/Carnegie reports until we read their recommendations for certification at the secondary level, for rural teachers, which should allow several minors rather than a major and one minor to make the teacher fit the needs of the rural school situation. Typically the literature from rural teacher education would not support the major premises of Holmes and Carnegie.

Rural Teachers: The Data

With the exception of Bull, et al. (1988) none of the data based articles previously reported analyzed their data in such a way that

rural/urban differences could be examined. Bull, et al. (1988) found that rural teachers and faculty in teacher training institutions were less favorably inclined toward extended programs (19% to 30%), less inclined toward more liberal arts coursework (25% to 34%), less inclined toward more field experience (18% to 78%), less inclined toward professional coursework (54% to 58%) and less likely to agree that the standards in teacher education are too easy (38% to 46%). When the data were analyzed separately for teacher trainers and for public school teachers the faculty in rural institutions are always less in favor than are their urban counterparts. The same relationship holds for rural teachers when compared to urban teachers. The same relationship would hold for collateral service providers such as school psychologists, counselors, administrators and all special teachers, e.g., special education.

Rural Schools: Renewed Threat of Consolidation

Some will see the call for reform in teacher education as a direct threat to the rural school. Let us consider some of these arguements:

First, setting up a five year program, if it were implemented totally would remove one cohort of teachers from the pipeline. This group, say about 150,000, would not be available in th time of shortage which is predicted for the early 1990's. Many who currently would become teachers would not meet the new entry and exit standards and therefore would not apply for entry. This would further reduce the numbers in the pipeline. This is very good for driving up salaries but it makes recruiting in many rural areas, which are not tourist attractions, very difficult. Consolidation

looks better when you cannot recruit teachers to replace the ones that retire.

Second, salaries would go up for two reasons, career ladders and teacher shortages. Teacher shortages cause supply and demand problems which if they are severe can significantly raise salaries. The career ladder concept would further raise the average salary because professional teachers would have at least master's degrees and career professionals would have doctoral degrees. This could significantly impact the budgets in many rural schools. For example, Hawley (1986) estimates that career ladders will cost an additional six billion per year. SREB (1986) says that Hawley's estimate is too low. Increased costs lead to arguements for money saving by consolidation.

Professional development schools will be typically set up within a small distance of the universities who will work with them. Most of the research universities, 85.5%, are urban. Teachers model the kinds of teaching they see and they tend to want to go into settings like those within which they have experience. Unless there is a conscious effort, which is yet to be forth coming, to develop rural professional development schools, it is unlikely that many teachers will be oriented toward teaching in rural areas. If you cannot find teachers what is suggested? Consolidation!

Conclusion

The current wave of educational reform is crashing around us (Corrigan, 1988). We must plan carefully if we are not to be swept away.

The reasons, at least some of them, for problems in education are budget cuts, reduction in support for equality of education, reduced social services and increased military spending (Shor, 1986).

None of us are against all of these priorities but together they seem to lead to less education in rural areas. The focus of reform seems to exclude the rural school and focuses on urban settings where large numbers of students and teachers can be aggregated. Neither Holmes or any others of the major reports deals with the needs of teachers in rural areas.

Because of this lack of rural focus we, in rural areas, will probably be left to fend for themselves. This is unfortunate because as teachers become scarce and expensive there will be a new round of pressures for consolidation.

Changes in teacher education are caused by the potential process. Groups exert pressure to create certification standards, set salary scales, and so forth. We who represent rural areas should not oppose change, this would only be seen as being stubborn and reactionary. No, what we must do is to educate the reformers about living in rural areas; our needs, desires, and so forth. Reform, if in fact reform is to come, must recognize that one third of the children in this country live in rural areas and that they will need to be served in these areas for the foreseeable future. The way to make sure that this happens is to join the reformers and partake in the political process.

References

Amodeo, L.B. (1982). Rural education. Unpublished report. New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM.

Bull, K.S. (In press). Recruiting and retaining rural teachers: Some reported alternatives. Journal of Rural and Small Schools.

Bull, K.S., Warner, M.M., Yellin, D., Robinson, D.W., Neuberger, G.C. (1988). Attitudes concerning extended teacher education programs: A rural urban comparison. Unpublished manuscript, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma.

Bush, R.N. (1987). Teacher education reform: Lessons from the past half century. Journal of Teacher Education, 38(3), 13-19.

Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986). A Nation Prepared Teachers for the 21st Century. New York: Author.

Corrigan, D. (1988). Waves of reform. South Central Holmes Group Newsletter, 1, 1.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1984). Beyond the Commission Reports: The Coming Crisis in Teaching. Santa Monica: Rand Corporation.

Education Commission of the States, Task Force on Education for Economic Growth. (1983). Action for Excellence: A Comprehensive Plan to Improve our Nation's Schools. Denver: Author.

Gardiner, C.E. & Edington, E.D. (1982). The Preparation and Certification of Teachers for Rural and Small Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service NO. ED. 223 396).

Hawley, W.D. (1986). The risks and inadequacy of extended programs. In

E.C. Glaimbos (Ed.), Improving teacher education (pp.27-36). New Directions for Teaching and Learning, No. 27. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

The Holmes Group. (1986). Tomorrow's Teacher: A Report of the Holmes Group. East Lansing: Author.

Johnson, W.R. (1987). Empowering practitioners: Holmes, Carnegie, and the lessons of history. History of Education Quarterly, 27, 221-240.

Muse, I.D. (1977). Preservice programs for educational personnel going into rural schools. (ERIC document reproduction service NO. ED 135 506).

The National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform. Washington, DC: U.S. DOE.

Popkewitz, T.S. (1982). Educational reform as the organization of ritual: Stability as change. Journal of Education, 164(1), 5-29.

Schwebel, M. (1985). The clash of cultures in academe: The university and the education faculty. Journal of Teacher Education, 36(4), 2-7.

Sedlak, M.W. (1987). Tomorrow's teachers: The essential arguments of the Holmes Group report. Teachers College Record, 88, 314-325.

Shanker, A. (1987). Tomorrow's teachers. Teachers College Record, 88, 423-429.

Sher, J.P. (1977). What's next? A research and action adjenda for rural ecucation. In J.P. Sher (Ed). Education in Rural America: A Reassessment of Conventional Wisdom. (pp. 271-290), Boulder, CO: Westview.

Shor, I. (1986). Equality is Excellence: Transforming teacher education and the learning process. Harvard Educational Review, 56, 406-426.

Southern Regional Education Board, (1986). Major Reports on Teacher Education: What they Mean for States. Atlanta, GA: Author.

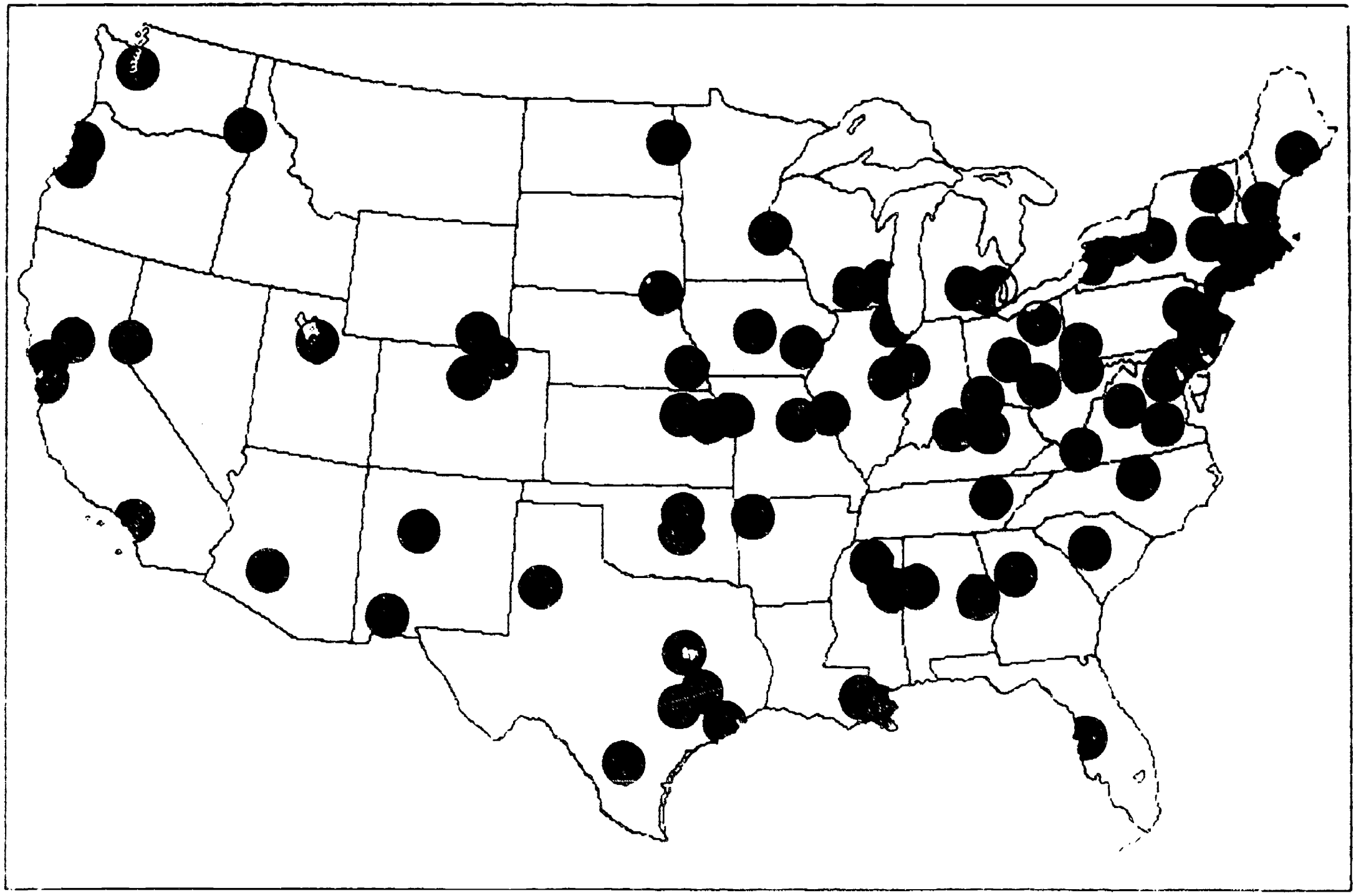


Figure 1

Holmes Group Schools
Service Areas

Dimensions of Being "At-Risk":
Children and Youth in Rural Environments

Kay Sather Bull

Marta Garrett

Oklahoma State University

Developed for the at-risk task force: American Council on Rural Special Education.

Presented at the ninth annual conference of the American Council on Rural Special Education, Ft. Lauderdale, FL March, 1989.

This paper is designed to provide the beginning information for this "At-Risk" task force. All of you are interested in one or more dimensions of "At-Risk" because of your presense. What we have tried to do in this paper is to indicate some (but, possibly not all) of the dimensions of "At-Risk", so that task force members can better gauge the breadth of the problem and can begin to take some action upon it.

The general problem, with which we are dealing, is one of children and youth who are placed, by the actions of self or others, in situations where they are likely to be physically, psychologically or emotionally damaged or where they will not thrive. This in its broadest sense is the meaning of "At-Risk". Children can be placed "at-risk" at various times, by various persons, and by various agencies. Some are more likely at one point or another in the development of a child. For example, adolescents are much more likely to be "at-risk" by running away than are children under the age of five.

At-risk is a generic term which relates to problems in the child (pre-existing conditions), things done to children and youth by others or by themselves, or conditions which develop as children and youth grow and mature which adversely affect their development (physical, intellectual, emotional, social, and educational) and legal status.

The purpose(s) of our task force is to study this problem and to make recommendations to policy makers related to dealing with aspects of the problem in rural areas. We may also wish to gather information to show the extent of the need or the kinds of programs which are the most effective in rural areas, in comparison to urban areas. To do this we must examine the literature and what we know from personal experience. The latter part of this paper presents some of the literature, at least enough to get started in examining most of the areas of "At-Risk".

After we have looked at the data we should look to informing the public(s) who we represent about the condition of "At-Risk" children and what should/can be done about it. To do this we need to look at various publics, e.g., parents, teachers, workers for social/welfare agencies, children, and the community at large.

Within each area or dimension of "At-Risk" we need to look at a sample of the researach related to rural children. If research has been done does it show that different strategies, interventions, techniques, etc., need to be used in rural areas. Or, are urban techniques satisfactory for use in rural areas. If no research has been done on rural populations, should it be? This means, we think, prioritizing the kinds of research which neneds to be done in rural "At-Risk" on the basis of the severity of the problem and the cost of the research. We must recognize that there will always be

research that needs to be done which will remain unfounded. We should insure that we have developed an agenda which can be communicated to the policy makers and the funding agencies so that when dollars are spent on rural "At-Risk" problems, that the right problems are addressed.

Finally we need to develop a priority list of the problems, we as a task force wish to address. This is probably some subset of the priorities list that we think should be generated. As part of this process we need to, we think, form committees looking at various aspects of "At-Risk" with various ages of children and youth. In this paper we try to provide some structure to the various causes of "at-risk". It should be recognized that the categories to which these causes are assigned are sometimes intituitively obvious and sometimes arbitrary. No attempt has been made to provide definitive categorization for problems which may have, potentially, many diverse causes, e.g., learning disabilities. The list of clients and problems is obviouslv, not comprehensive but we have tried to make it representitive.

At-Risk (general)

Abramson, S. (1983). Issues in early identification of children at educational risk. Viewpoints in Teaching and Learning, 59(1), 12-19.

Anderson, L.S., & Limoncelli, R. J. (1982). Meeting the needs of the high risk, difficult to reach student: Creative educational approaches. The School Counselor, May, 381-387.

Atkinson, J. K. (Ed.) (1980). Too late at eight: Prevention and intervention, young children's learning difficulties (ISBN-0-86776-001-X). Brisbane, Australia: Queensland University, Fred and Eleanor Schonell Educational Research Centre.

Conrath, J. (1986). Our other youth: Handbook of guidelines for teachers and other adults who work with at-risk kids and discouraged or defeated learners. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 278 153)

Mirga, T. (1988). States and the 'At-Risk' issues: Said aware but still 'failing.' Education Week, 8/3, pp. 1, 14, 15.

New York State Education Department, Albany (1984). Report on pupils-at-risk. Office of Elementary, Secondary, and Continuing Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 281 895)

Olson, L. (1988). Despite years of rhetoric, most still see little understanding, inadequate efforts. Education Week, 8/3, pp. 1, 16.

Rural

Horner, B., & O'Neill, J. (1981). Child welfare practice in small communities. Human Services in the Rural Environment, 6(3-4), 16-23.

Kleppel, E. B. (1981). Unique needs of rural mothers of handicapped children. Paper presented at the National Institute on Social Work in Rural Areas (6th, Beaufort County, SC, July 26-29, 1981).

Sarvela, P. D., & McClendon, E. J. (1987). Early adolescent alcohol abuse in rural northern Michigan. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance (Las Vegas, NV).

Seager, D. D., et al. (1980). Important issues in rural education: A collection of ERIC/CRESS fact sheets and mini reviews. ERIC Clearinghouse on rural Education and Small Schools, Las Cruces, New Mexico.

Tarleau, A. T. (1981). Rural child welfare: Education and practice issues. Human Services in the Rural Environment, 6(3-4), 9-15.

Tarleau, A. T. (1982). Rural child welfare. Washington University, St. Louis, MO: Region VII Child Welfare Training Center.

Things That are Done to Children and Youth

Events in this category include most of the interventions in the natural development of a child which cause developmental, educational, psychological or physical harm for that child. These things come in two categories comission and omission: These events are provided by parents, other family members, teachers, health and social service workers, medical personnel, judicial personnel, peers, and other adults. For some things only a relative can be involved, e.g., incest, but for others any adult may be the doer. Different kinds of events cause at-risk for young children, older children and youth therefore these are indicated differentially (1 = young children (0-4), 2 = older children (5-11), 3 = youth (12-18 or 21 if handicapped)) These numbers appear at the end of an entry to indicate the age of the typical victim. If no number is appended the research would indicate that it does not do different and apply equally to all ages.

I. Comission

Morse, S. J., & Whitebread, C. H. (1982). Mental health implications of the juvenile justice standards. Child and Youth Services, 5(3), 5-27.

A. Psychological maltreatment (parent, significant other, teacher)

Brassard, M. R., Germain, R., & Hart, S. N. (1987). Psychological Maltreatment of Children and Youth. New York: Pergamon Press.

Garbarino, J. (1977). The human ecology of child maltreatment: A conceptual model for research. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 721-735.

Garbarino, J., Guttman, E., & Seeley, J. W. (1987). What is psychological maltreatment? (Chapter 1), Identifying cases of maltreatment (Chapter 3), Identifying psychological maltreatment outside the home (Chapter 8). The Psychologically Battered Child. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Hart, S. N. (1987). Psychological maltreatment in schooling. School Psychology Review, 16(2), 169-180.

Hart, S. N., & Brassard, M. R. (1987). A major threat to children's mental health: Psychological maltreatment. American Psychologist, 42(2), 160-165.

Lynch, P. D. (1984, April). Psychological abuse of children: Implications for malpractice and dismissals of teachers. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.

Melton, G. B., & Corson, J. (1987). Psychological maltreatment and the schools: Problems of law and professional responsibility. School Psychology Review, 16(2), 188-194.

Rosenberg, M. S. (1987). New directions for research on the psychological maltreatment of children. American Psychologist, 42(2), 166-171.

1. Reject (a-e from Garbarino, 1987)

2. Isolating 1,2

3. Terrorizing 1,2

4. Ignoring

5. Corrupting (include pornography)

6. Degrading 2,3

7. Denying Emotional Expressiveness 2,3

B. Child Abuse

(1980). Children and violence. Edited proceedings of an International Symposium (Stockholm, Sweden, May 14-16, 1979).

Children's justice act. Report to accompany S. 140. United States Senate, Ninety-Ninth Congress, First Session. (1985). Congress of the U.S., Washington, D.C. Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources.

Brady, M. L. (1985). Domestic violence and child abuse: A selective bibliography, Bibliography Series Eighteen (2nd ed).California Polytechnic State University, San Luis Obispo. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 264 482)

Giovannoni, J. M., & Becerra, R. M. (1979). Defining child abuse. New York: Free Press.

Gray, E. (1983). What have we learned about preventing child abuse? An overview of the "Community and Minority Group Action to Prevent Child Abuse and Neglect" program. Prevention focus working paper No. 009. National Committee for Prevention of Child Abuse, Chicago, IL.

Starr, R. H., & et al. (1984). The contribution of handicapping conditions to child abuse. Topics in Early Childhood Special Education, 4(1), 55-69.

Tower, C. C. (1987). How schools can help combat child abuse and neglect (2nd ed.). National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

1. physical (battered child syndrome) 1,2

Lee, J. (1979). A review of the child abuse literature. New York. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 182 907)

2. sexual

Ahart, G. J. (1982). Sexual exploitation of children -- A problem of unknown magnitude. Report to the Chairman, Subcommittee on Select Education, House Committee on Education and Labor. Government Accounting Office, Washington, D.C. Division of Human Resources. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 220 753)

Dembo, R., Dertke, M., LaVoie, L., Borders, S., Washburn, M., & Schmeidler, J. (1987). Physical abuse, sexual victimization and illicit drug use: A structural analysis among high risk adolescents. Journal of Adolescence, 10, 13-33.

Hodson, D. & Skeen, P. (1987). Child sexual abuse: A review of research and theory with implications for family life educators. Family Relations, 36(2), 215-21.

National Committee for Prevention of Child Abuse (1985). Child sexual abuse prevention resources: Guidelines for child sexual abuse prevention programs. Chicago, IL.

Tharinger, D. J. & Vevier, E. (1987). Child sexual abuse: A review and intervention framework for the teacher. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 20(4), 12-24.

Vevier, E., & Tharinger, D. J. (1986). Child sexual abuse: A review and intervention framework for the school psychologist. Journal of School Psychology, 24(3), 293-311.

a. incest

Mey, B. J. V., & Neff, R. L. (1982). Adult-child incest: A review of research and treatment. Adolescence, 17(68), 717-735.

Riggs, R. S. (1982). Incest: The school's role. Journal of School Health, 52(8), 365-70.

b. extra-familial

Pettis, K. W., & Hughes, R. D. (1985). Sexual victimization of children: A current perspective. Behavioral Disorders, 10(2), 136-144.

c. pornography

Friend, S. A. (1983). Sexual exploitation of children and youth. State Legislative Report, 8(6).

(1982). Teenage prostitution and child pornography. Hearings before the Subcommittee on Select Education on the Committee on Education and Labor. House of Representatives, Ninety-Seventh Congress, Second Session.

3. emotional (subsumes 1 1-7, above)

Lamphear, V. S. (1985). The impact of maltreatment on children's psychosocial adjustment: A review of the research. Child Abuse and Neglect: The International Journal, 9(2), 251-63.

Morris, J. (1979). Parental psychological and emotional abuse. School Guidance Worker, 34(5), 26-29.

4. verbal 2,3

Bell, D. C., & Bell, L. G. (1981). Patterns of verbal communication in strong families. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association (89th, Los Angeles, CA).

5. educational (refusal to allow attendance) 2,3

Pepe, T. J., & et al. (1985). Academic penalties for attendance reasons. Legal Memorandum, pgs. 1-8.

C. Pressure for super conformity 2,3

D. Induced academic failure 2,3

Mizell, M. H. (1986). Considerations preliminary to the development of dropout prevention policies and programs. Spectrum, 4(4), 21-27.

Pink, W. T. (1982). Academic failure, student social conflict, and delinquent behavior. Urban Review, 14(3), 141-180.

E. Dependency (induced by parent or teacher) 2,3

F. Guilt 3

G. Religion 2,3

Meier, J. H., & Sloan, M. P. (1982). Acts of God and or rites of families: Accidental versus inflicted child disabilities. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 234 891)

H. Learned helplessness 2,3

Adelman, H., & Taylor, L. (1986). An introduction to learning disabilities. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

Rouse, N. I. (1980). Depression: Key to minority underachievement. Kappa Delta Pi Record, 16(4), 104-106.

Schloss, P. J. (1983). Classroom-based intervention for student exhibiting depressive reactions. Behavioral Disorders, 8(4), 231-236.

I. Migratory existance

Steedman, H. (1979). The education of migrant workers' children in EEC countries: From assimilation to cultural pluralism? Comparative Education, 15(3), 259-268.

J. Discrimination (ethnicity, sex, religion)

(1980). Indian culture and its relationship to child abuse and neglect, revised. National Indian Child Abuse and Neglect Resource Center, Tulsa, OK.

Smith, R. D. (1987). Multicultural considerations: Working with families of developmentally disabled and high risk children. The Hispanic perspective. Paper presented at the conference of the National Center for Clinical Infant Programs, "Vulnerable Infants, Stressed Families: Challenges for Research and Practice" (Los Angeles, CA, February 20-22, 1987).

K. Taboos/superstitions 2,3

Wagner, G. A., & Morris, E. K. (1980). Acquisition of superstitious behavior with children. Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association (88th, Montreal, Quebec, Canada, September 1-5, 1980).

L. Victims of crimes 2,3

(1985). Selected state legislation: A guide for effective state laws to protect children. National Center for Missing and Exploited Children, Washington, D.C.

Flowers, R. B. (1986). The adolescent victim of crime and delinquency.

Wishon, P. M., & Broderius, B. W. (1987). Missing and abducted children: The school's role in prevention. Fastback 249. Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, Bloomington, IN.

II. Omission

Morse, S. J., Whitebread, C. H. (1982). Mental health implications of the juvenile justice standards. Child and Youth Services, 5(3), 5-27.

A. Child abuse (neglect)

1. physical 1,2

2. emotional

3. educational 2,3

(1985). Children's justice act. Report to accompany S. 140, United States Senate, Ninety-Ninth Congress, First Session. Congress of the U.S., Washington, D.C. Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources.

Gelardo, M. S., & Sanford, E. E. (1987). Child abuse and neglect: A review of the literature. School Psychology Review, 16(2), 137-155.

Gray, E. (1983). What have we learned about preventing child abuse? An overview of the "Community and Minority Group Action to Prevent Child Abuse and Neglect" program. Prevention focus working paper No. 009. National Committee for Prevention of Child Abuse, Chicago, IL.

Juvenile Justice Standards Project (1981). Standards relating to abuse and neglect. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger Publishing.

Tower, C. C. (1987). How schools can help combat child abuse and neglect (2nd ed.). National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

B. No exposure to educationally related things (books, magazines, pencils, etc.) 1,2

C. Lack of parental/cultural acceptance of education 2,3

D. Lack of appropriate education (either tail of the distribution) 2,3

Baker, K. (1985). Research evidence of a school discipline problem. Phi Delta Kappan, 66(7), 482-488.

E. Nutritional deficiencies (Kwashiorkor) 1,2

F. Bad luck (ala Adelman) 2,3

Adelman, H., & Taylor, L. (1986). An introduction to learning disabilities. Glenview, IL. Scott, Foresman.

Conditions that Develop Among Children and Youth

Conditions that develop among children and youth which cause at-risk typically are diseases, some educational problems (e.g., dyslexia) changes in environment including physical, emotional and social (divorce of parents), physical changes (handicapping conditions, paraplegia); and psychological problems seemingly not related to self or others.

III. Developing Conditions

A. Changes in Environment

1. Parental unemployment

Etaugh, C. (1984). Effects of maternal employment on children: An updated review. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association (Chicago, IL, May 3-5).

2. Divorce

Benedek, R. S., & Benedek, E. P. (1979). Children of divorce: Can we meet their needs? Journal of Social Issues, 35(4), 155-169.

Carlson, C. I. (1987). Helping students deal with divorce-related issues. Special Services in the Schools, 3(3-4), 121-138.

Dawson, P. (1981). The effect of the single-parent family on academic achievement. A review of related literature. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 241 604)

DiSibio, R. A. (1981). The effect of the single-parent family on the academic, emotional, and social achievement of the elementary school child. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 226 825)

Lowery, C. R., & Settle, S. A. (1985). Effects of divorce on children: Differential impact of custody and visitation patterns. Family Relations, 34(4), 455-463.

Neely, E. M. (1985). An annotated bibliography concerning children of divorce: Meeting their needs in the elementary classroom. South Bend: IN, Indian University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 258 723)

Rubin, L. D., & Price, J. H. (1979). Divorce and its effects on children. Journal of School Health, 49(10), 552-556.

Schwertfeger, J. (1983). Research concerning young children of divorced parents and recommendations for teachers. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 242 409)

Spain, E. T. (1981). Children of divorce--A forgotten constituency. Social Studies, 72(2), 91-94.

Sumrak, S. M. (1984). An annotated bibliography of the literature dealing with the effect of divorce on school age children and how schools can meet their needs. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 252 311)

3. Child in custody of legal system

4. Foster home

Brady, M. L. (1985). Domestic violence and child abuse: A selective bibliography, Bibliography Series Eighteen (2nd ed). San Luis Obispo, CA: California Polytechnic State University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 264 482)

Finkelstein, N. E. (1980). Children in limbo. Social Work, 25(2), 100-105.

5. Marital discord

Emery, R. E. (1982). Interparental conflict and the children of discord and divorce. Psychological Bulletin, 92(2), 310-30.

Renouf, E. (1984). Separated families and children who refuse access to a parent. Unit for child studies selected papers number 33. Kensington, Australia: New South Wales University, School of Education.

6. Experience extreme trauma or catastrophy

7. "Hazardous materials" 1,2

Kane, D. N. (1985). Environmental hazards to young children. Phoenix, AZ: Oryz Press.

B. Diseases

(1983). Developmental handicaps: Prevention and treatment. A cooperative project between university affiliated facilities and state MCH/CC programs. Washington, D.C.: American Association of University Affiliated Programs for the Developmentally Disabled; Baltimore, MD: John F. Kennedy Institute; Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University.

(1984). Developmental handicaps: Prevention and treatment, II. A cooperative project between university affiliated facilities and state MCH/CC programs. Baltimore, MD: John F. Kennedy Institute; Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University.

(1985). Developmental handicaps: Prevention and treatment, III. A cooperative project between university affiliated facilities and state MCH/CC programs. Silver Spring, MD: American Association of University Affiliated Programs for Persons with Developmental Disabilities; Baltimore, MD: John F. Kennedy Institute; Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University.

Doherty, W. J., & McCubbin, H. I. (Eds.) (1985). Special issue: The family and health care. Family Relations, 34(1), 5-137.

Isaacs, J., & McElroy, M. R. (1980). Psychosocial aspects of chronic illness in children. Journal of School Health, 50(6), 318-21.

Kendall, E. D. (1983). Research in review. Child care and disease: What is the link? Young Children, 38(5), 68-77.

Perry, J. D., & Flanagan, W. K. (1986). Pediatric Psychology: Applications to the schools needs of children with health disorders. Techniques, 2(4), 333-340.

1. AIDS

Centers for Disease Control (1988). Guidelines for effective school health education to prevent the spread of AIDS. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report, 37, (Suppl. 2).

Hartog-Rapp, F. (1987). AIDS: Is any risk too great? The 1987 perspective. Paper presented at the National Council of School Attorney's School Law Seminar, San Francisco, CA.

Silin, J. G. (1987). The language of AIDS: Public fears, pedagogical responsibilities. Teachers College Record, 89(1), 3-19.

2. Venereal disease 3

(1983). Sexually transmitted diseases: A selective annotated bibliography. Planned Parenthood Federation of America, Inc., New York, NY. Education Department.

(1985). Educator's guide to sexually transmitted diseases. Texas State Department of Health, Austin.

Britton, P. O., (Ed.), & et al. (1984). Issues of the '80s: Infertility, child sexual abuse, sex roles, herpes & AIDS, single parents, and latchkey children. Emphasis.

3. Allergies (foods, molds, pollins)

Taylor, E. (1979). Food additives, allergy and hyperkinesis. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines, 20(4), 357-364.

4. Asthma

5. CNS disorders

6. Diabetes

McFadden, J. (1979). Group counseling: Health related. Journal of Non-White Concerns in Personnel and Guidance, 8(1), 4-9.

7. Epilepsy

Ziegler, R. G. (1982). Epilepsy: Individual illness, human predicament and family dilemma. Family Relations, 31(3), 435-444.

8. Hydrocephaly

9. Cancer

10. Ulcers 2,3

11. Adventitious Impairments

Gartner, A., & Lipsky, D. K. (1987). Beyond special education: Toward a quality system for all students. Harvard Educational Review, 57(4), 367-395.

Kleppel, E. B. (1981). Unique needs of rural mothers of handicapped children. Paper presented at the National Institute on Social Work in Rural Areas (6th, Beaufort County, SC, July 26-29, 1981).

C. Psychological problems

Phillips, S. (1983). Self concept and self esteem: Infancy to adolescence. A cognitive developmental outline with some reference to behavior and health effects. Unit for child studies. Selected papers number 27. Kensington, Australia: New South Wales University, School of Education.

1. Phobias 2,3

2. Psychosis 2,3

3. Depression

Allen-Meares, P. (1987). Depression in childhood and adolescence. Social Work, 32(6), 512-516.

Golden, J. M. (1981). Depression in middle and late childhood: Implications for intervention. Child Welfare, 60(7), 457-465.

Lobel, B., & Hirschfeld, R. M. A. (1984). Depression: What we know. Rockville, MD: National Institute of Mental Health (DHHS).

Reynolds, W. M., & Stark, K. D. (1987). School-based intervention strategies for the treatment of depression in children and adolescents. Special Services in the Schools, 3(3-4), 69-88.

Rouse, N. I. (1980). Depression: Key to minority underachievement. Kappa Delta Pi Record, 16(4), 104-106.

Schloss, P. J. (1983). Classroom-based intervention for student exhibiting depressive reactions. Behavioral Disorders, 8(4), 231-236.

4. Attention Deficit Disorders 2,3

Dykman, R. A., et al. (1983). Psychological manifestations of learning disability. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 16(1), 46-53.

Pelham, Jr., W. E. (1986). What do we know about the use and effects of CNS stimulants in the treatment of ADD? Journal of Children in Contemporary Society, 19(1-2), 99-110.

D. Educational Conditions

1. Not educationally ready 2,3

2. Developmentally slow 2,3

E. Socially withdrawn/unpopular

Asher, S. R., & Wheeler, V. A. (1985). Children's loneliness: A comparison of rejected and neglected peer status. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 53(4), 500-505.

Bierman, K. L., & Schwartz, L. A. (1986). Selecting social intervention techniques for aggressive rejected children. Paper presented at Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association (94th, Washington, D.C., August 22-26, 1986).

Brulle, A. R., & McIntyre, T. C. (1982). Socially withdrawn children: A review.

Roopnarine, J. L., & Honig, A. S. (1985). Research review: The unpopular child. Young Children, 40(6), 59-64.

Self-Induced Problems of Children and Youth

Self-induced problems of children and youth include problems of

comisssion and omission. Self-problems are considered to be those where the child actively partakes in using something (e.g., drugs) or where the child avoids something and the treatment, no matter what the root cause, is treatment of the child (e.g., anorexia) and psychological problems with no obvious outside agency. Self-induced problems can affect all areas of development (physical, educational, intellectual, emotional, social).

IV. Induced Problems

Talbutt, L. (1980). Medical rights of minors: Some answered and unanswered legal questions. School Counselor, 27(5), 403-406.

A. Sexuality

Chamberlin, L. J. (1981). Sex and today's children. Clearing House, 54(9), 414-417.

Franz, W. (1987). Adolescent cognitive abilities and implications for sexual decision-making. Paper presented at the Third Annual Eastern Symposium on Building Family Strengths, University Park, PA.

Landerholm, E. (1982). High-risk infants of teenage mothers: Later candidates for special education placements? Journal of the Division for Early Childhood, 6, 3-13.

1. promiscuity 3

2. pregnancy 3

Phipps-.onas, S. (1980). Teenage pregnancy and motherhood: A review of the literature. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 50(3), 403-31.

Walz, G. R., & Benjamin, L. (1980). Adolescent pregnancy and parenthood. ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Personnel Services, Ann Arbor, MI. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 189 528)

3. sexual identity (homosexual, etc) 3

Morgan, K. P. (1985). Freeing the children: The abolition of gender. Educational Theory, 35(4), 351-57.

Ramage, J. C., et al. (1982). The psychological rights of the child and sexual identity. Viewpoints in Teaching and Learning, 58(1), 64-75.

B. Substance ab e

Dembo, R., Dertke, M., LaVoie, L., Borders, S., Washburn, M., & Schmeidler, J. (1987). Physical abuse, sexual victimization and illicit drug use: A structural analysis among high risk adolescents. Journal of Adolescence, 10, 13-33.

Hutchinson, R. I., & Little, T. J. (1985). A study of alcohol and drug usage by nine- through thirteen-year-old children in central Indiana. Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education, 30(3), 83-149.

Kozicki, Z. A. (1986). Why do adolescents use substances (drugs/alcohol)? Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education, 32(1), 1-7.

1. drugs 2,3

Glynn, T. J., & et al. (Eds.) (1983). Preventing adolescent drug abuse: Intervention Strategies. NIDA research monograph 47. A RAUS review report. Rockville, MD: National Institute on Drug Abuse (DHHS/PHS).

McCurdy, J. (Ed.) (1986). The drug free school: What school executives can do. National School Public Relations Association, Arlington, VA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 276 936)

2. alcohol 2,3

(1985). Positive prevention: Successful approaches to preventing youthful drug and alcohol use. Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators; Columbus, OH: Quest National Center.

Kline, R. B., & et al. (1987). Parameters of teenage alcohol use: A path analytic conceptual model. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 55(4), 521-28.

3. inhalents 2,3

Mitic, W. R., & et al. (1987). Adolescent inhalent use and perceived stress. Journal of Drug Education, 17(2), 113-21.

C. Eating Disorders

Mitchell, J. E., & Eckert, E. D. (1987). Scope and significance of eating disorders. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 55(5), 628-634.

Shisslak, C. M., et al. (1987). Primary prevention of eating disorders. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 55(5), 660-667.

Thompson, G. S. (1985). Anorexia nervosa/bulimia: The teenager's dilemma.

1. Bulimia 3

Strober, M., & Humphrey, L. L. (1987). Familial contributions to the etiology and course of anorexia nervosa and bulimia. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 55(5), 654-659.

2. Anorexia Nervosa 3

McNab, W. L. (1983). Anorexia and the adolescent. Journal of School Health, 53(7), 427-30.

3. Obsesity 2,3

4. Nutritional deficiencies 1,2

Fishbein, D., & Meduski, J. (1987). Nutritional biochemistry and behavioral disabilities. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 20(8), 505-12.

Norwood, G. R. (1984). The relationship of health and nutrition to the learning process. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for Childhood Education International (Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada).

Tseng, R. Y. L., Comp., & et al. (1980). The relationship between nutrition and student achievement, behavior, and health: A review of the literature. Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education; San Jose State University, CA.

D. Delinquency

Coates, R. B. (1981). Community-based services for juvenile delinquents: Concept and implications for practice. Journal of Social Issues, 37(3), 87-101.

McCord, J. (1982). Adolescent mental health: Delinquency (Matrix No. 8). Paper presented at the Research Forum on Children and Youth (Washington, D.C., May 18-19, 1981).

1. felony 3

2. misdemeanor

3. status offenses

a. Truancy 2,3

b. Run away 2,3

E. Gambling

F. "Self Destructive Behavior"

1. Self-mutilation

Durand, V. M., & Carr, E. G. (1985). Self-injurious behavior: Motivating conditions and guidelines for treatment. School Psychology Review, 14(2), 171-76.

Osborne, S. S., & et al. (1986). Treatment of self-injurious behavior using self-control techniques with a severe behaviorally disordered adolescent. Behavioral Disorders, 12(1), 60-67.

2. Suicide 2,3

3. "Self abuse"

G. Psychological Problems

1. Stress/anxiety

Bennett, B., & Reardon, R. (1985). The dual-earner family's impact on the child and the family system: Review and implications for counseling practice.

Duncan, D. F. (1983). Stress and children: A theoretical overview. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, Minneapolis, MN.

Hawkins, II, R. C. (1982). Childhood stress and coping: A review and cognitive-developmental theory. An earlier version of this paper was presented at the Annual Convention of the Texas Psychological Association, Houston, TX. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 231 541)

McNamee, A. S. (Ed.) (1982). Children and stress: Helping children cope. Association for Childhood Education International, Washington, D.C. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 221 277)

Rhiner, P. (1983). The many pressures on children in today's world. PTA Today, 8(4), 5-8.

2. Aggressive behavior

Cornell, D. G. (1987). Clinical assessment of the violent adolescent. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the national Association of School Psychologists (19th, New Orleans, LA).

Sallis, J. F. (1983). Aggressive behaviors of children: A review of behavioral interventions and future directions. Education and Treatment of Children, 6(2), 175-91.

3. Elective mutism 1,2

4. Enuresis 1,2

Berg, I. (1979). Day wetting in children. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines, 20(2), 167-74.

Wagner, W. G. (1987). The behavioral treatment of childhood nocturnal enuresis. Journal of Counseling and Development, 65(5), 262-65.

5. Fear of Success

Ishiyama, F. I., & Chabassol, D. J. (1985). Adolescents' fear of social consequences of academic success as a function of age and sex. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 14(1), 37-46.

6. Fear of failure

Bryan, J. H., & et al. (1983). The relationship between fear of failure and learning disabilities. Learning Disability Quarterly, 6(2), 217-22.

7. School phobia 2,3

Preexisting Conditions

Preexisting conditions which affect children: These conditions include genetically induced problems; (Down's syndrome) prebirth conditions caused by actions or nonactions of the mother (drug addiction); prebirth and birth trauma (lack of oxygen during birth); post birth conditions in the first few weeks of life (PKU); conditions that relate to the enviornment into which the child is born (isolation from medical care); and some educational conditions.

V. Preexisting Conditions

A. Environmental Conditions

1. Minority group member "socially and or culturally disadvantaged" (embedded in majority culture)

Indian culture and its relationship to child abuse and neglect, revised. (1980). National Indian Child Abuse and Neglect Resource Center, Tulsa, OK. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 229 193)

Brady, M. L. (1984). Understanding the minority child in the American educational system. Education, 105(1), 21-33.

2. Parent(s) abused as children

Wolfe, D. A., Jaffe, P., Wilson, S. K., & Zak, L. (1985). Children of battered women: The relation of child behavior to family violence and maternal stress. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 53(5), 657-665.

3. Parent(s) addicted to substnace

Chafetz, M. E. (1979). Children of alcoholics. New York University Education Quarterly, 10(3), 23-29.

Krois, D. H. (1987). Children of alcoholics. Doctor of Psychology Research Paper, Biola University, California. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 285 079)

Poston, V. (1987). Characteristics of children of alcoholics--A review of empirical studies. Doctor of Psychology Research Paper, Biola University, California.

Tharinger, D. J., & Koranek, M. E. (1988). Children of alcoholics--At risk and unserved: A review of research and service roles for school psychologists. School Psychology Review, 17(1), 166-191.

4. "Economically disadvantaged"

5. Crowding

6. Too many close sibs 1,2

Zajonc, R. B., & Bargh, J. (1980). Birth order, family size, and decline of SAT scores. American Psychologist, 35(7), 662-68.

Zajonc, R. B., & et al. (1979). The birth order puzzle Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37(8), 1325-41.

7. Parental separation

Hunter, E. J., & Nice, D. S. (Eds.) (1978). Children of military families: A part and yet apart. Chapters of this volume are based upon papers presented at the Military Family Research Conference (San Diego, California, September 1-3, 1977).

8. Social isolation

Anderson, D. R. (1986). Prevention of child maltreatment: The use of social support systems. Doctor of Psychology Research Paper, Biola University, California.

Seagull, E. A. W. (1987). Social support and child maltreatment: A review of the evidence. Child Abuse and Neglect: The International Journal, 11(1), 41-52.

Walters, J., & Walters, L. H. (1980). Parent-child relationships: A review, 1970-1979. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 42(4), 807-822.

B. Mother Actions

1. Low birth weight 1

2. Protein deficiency 1

3. Fetal alcohol syndrome 1

The fetal alcohol syndrome public awareness campaign, 1979: Progress report concerning the advance notice of proposed rulemaking on warning labels on containers of alcoholic beverages and addendum. (1979). Washington, D.C.: Department of the Treasury; Rockville, MD: National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (DHEW/PHS).

Elliott, D. J., & Johnson, N. (1983). Fetal alcohol syndrome: Implications and counseling considerations. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 62(2), 67-69.

Furey, E. M. (1982). The effects of alcohol on the fetus. Exceptional Children, 49(1), 30-34.

Umbreit, J., & Ostrow, L. S. (1980). The fetal alcohol syndrome. Mental Retardation, 18(3), 109-111.

4. Fetal addiction 1

Lamanna, M. (1982). Alcohol related birth defects: Implications for education. Journal of Drug Education, 12(2), 113-23.

C. Mother non-actions

1. Failure to thrive 1

2. Autism (may be categorized differently by others)

D. Educational conditions

1. Acalculia (can't do math) 2,3

2. Dyslexia/alexia (can't read) 2,3

Facts about dyslexia. National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NIH), Bethesda, MD; Orton Society, Towson, MD.

Benton, A. L. (1984). Dyslexia and spatial thinking. Annals of Dyslexia, 34, 69-85.

3. Agnosia (can't interpret sensory stimuli) 2,3

Hooper, J., & et al. (1987). Blissymbols and manual signs: A multimodal approach to intervention in a case of multiple disability. Augmentative and Alternative Communication, 3(2), 68-76.

4. Agraphia (can't write) 2,3

Roeltgen, D. P., & Heilman, K. M. (1985). Review of agraphia and a proposal for an anatomically-based neuropsychological model of writing. Applied Psycholinguistics, 6(3), 205-29.

5. Distractability ("Attention span deficit") 2,3

E. "Congenital impairments"

Goldman, A. S., & et al. (1981). Congenital defects. In Child Health and Human Development. An Evaluation and Assessment of the State of the Science.

1. Down's Syndrome

Pueschel, S. M. (1986). An overview of Down Syndrome. Arlington, TX: Association for Retarded Citizens. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 232 426)

2. Blindness

Hatlen, P. H., & Curry, S. A. (1987). In support of specialized programs for blind and visually impaired children: The impact of vision loss on learning. Journal of Visual Impairment and Blindness, 81(1), 7-13.

Urwin, C. (1984). Language for absent things: Learning from visually handicapped children. Topics in Language Disorders, 4(4), 24-37.

3. Anencephaly

Goldman, A. S., & et al. (1981). Congenital defects. Child Health and Human Development. An Evaluation and Assessment of the State of the Science.

4. Convulsions

Rovet, J. F., & et al. (1988). Specific intellectual deficits in children with early onset diabetes mellitus. Child Development, 59(1), 226-34.

5. Cleft palate

Richman, L. C. (1980). Cognitive patterns and learning disabilities in cleft palate children with verbal deficits. Journal of Speech and Hearing Research, 23(2), 447-56.

6. Dwarfism

Cole, D., & Dempsey, D. (1984). Little girl with a big heart. Pointer, 28(3), 37-38.

Money, J. (1982). Child abuse: Growth failure, IQ deficit, and learning disability. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 15(10), 579-82.

F. Prebirth and birth trauma

1. Anoxia

2. Brain damage

G. Educational disadvantaged 2,3

Hathaway, W. E., & Rhodes, H. C. (1979). Disadvantaged learners: The nature of the problem and some potential solutions. Edmonton, Canada: Alberta Department of Education, Planning and Research Branch.

Wheelock, A. (1986). Dropping out: What the research says. Equity and Choice, 3(1), 7-11.

Peter Burpee, Brenda Wilson, Cheryl Aumndsen
McGill University, Montreal, Canada

Electronic Mail in Distance Education: A Canadian Perspective

Distance Education and Electronic Communications

> TeleSat Canada, the national satellite carrier established the first domestic geostationary satellite communications system, Anik A, in 1973... At the same time, the growth of online and time-shared services in the late 60's and early 70's began moving the computer industry throughout the world into the communications field. The rapid development of microelectronics in the 1970's brought a host of intelligent terminals such as personal computers, word processors and computer-assisted design workstations and robots to complete this revolution. (Communications Canada, 1987).

Despite population distribution and the sheer size of the country, it has taken less than two decades for electronic communications to become a matter of priority in Canada. Since most of the population of Canada is located adjacent to the Canada/United States border, vast areas to the north are sparcely populated. Beyond this urban belt, the rural population is highly dispersed, and some regions are hard to reach except by air.

The most remote region is the subarctic and arctic, where there are neither roads nor rail. Small regional airlines are the main carriers. Winter storms in the north, and fog in the maritime regions, frequently create difficult flying conditions. It is not unusual for a village airstrip to be closed for many days at a time. Even when the weather is favourable, there may be disruptions to the air service caused by emergencies such as medical evacuations, a system of flying judges who bring the courts to remote communities, etc.

Regular mail service, therefore, is understandably irregular, unpredictable and slow. A package may commonly take two or three weeks to arrive, even when carried by air, and letters may take anywhere from three days to two weeks. The incidence of accidental loss of mail is sufficiently high to make ordinary mail service unreliable. Only by paying more for Special Delivery for which mail is tracked from post office to destination, can letters and parcels be sent with any reasonable certainty of their arrival. For all these reasons, as soon as fast, reliable electronic communications transmission became available, remote northern school boards were quick to avail themselves of this welcome alternative to a slow and unreliable postal service.

For example, in 1980 the Kativik School Board which serves the Inuit population of northern Quebec introduced FAX transmission for internal correspondence between its administrative office located in Montreal, and its eleven schools scattered along the coasts of Hudson Bay and Ungava Bay. Messages can now be sent in minutes that had previously taken days or even weeks by courier or regular mail, and at a lower cost

than long distance telephone calls. Commercial electronic mail services, first introduced in Canada in the late 1970's, became implemented by remote school boards by 1987, and these now link schools in many other distant parts of the country.

Electronic Mail

As the name implies, electronic mail is the sending of messages from one person to another using electronic technology. This broad term encompasses telex, facsimile (FAX) transmission, computer conferencing, voice mail systems and services such as EnvoyPost which in Canada is a hybrid of electronic mail and a postal letter. For the purposes of this paper, electronic mail refers more narrowly to messages entered from a personal computer, transmitted to the intermediate commercial electronic mail service, and later read by the receiver at his/her convenience using another personal computer.

Electronic mail requires the use of a personal computer, a modem, and access to an electronic mail service. Any type of personal computer may be used. In fact, electronic mail is one means of conveniently sending text files from one type of computer to another. By using communications software, the home computer is modified to act as a 'dumb' terminal, or it may emulate a terminal with special function keys, or a specific kind of terminal such as a teletype terminal Some communications software available today virtually automate the process of calling up an electronic mail service, reading and printing mail, and sending messages with little intervention from the user.

Subscribers to electronic mail services are assigned 'addresses' and passwords with which to identify themselves. The addresses may or may not conform to the international X-400 protocol which permits sending/ receiving messages between other systems at home or abroad. Sending a message always requires knowing the other person's address.

Messages may be entered directly from the computer keyboard, or through a word processor. With the latter, the message must be saved and sent as a text or ASCII file. When messages are received by the electronic mail service, they are temporarily stored in a central computer under the specified 'address' until 'read'. To read electronic mail, the recipient must also be a subscriber.

Writing longer messages or assignments with a word processor is preferable for distance education courses since text is more easily revised and amended before sending. Considered writing of messages and corrected typing errors are naturally preferred over roughly expressed, disorganized writing replete with extraneous letters and confused spelling straight from the keyboard.

In Canada, text messages are sent to commercial electronic mail services through Datapac, a packet switching system for sending data over the telephone system. When compared to ordinary voice transmission, packet switching systems reduce the cost of message transmission. Transmission speeds are flexible at any of 300, 1200 or 2400 baud. However, higher

speeds, static and extraneous 'noise' result in occasional message loss or errors.

Commercial electronic mail services provide the sender with many useful options. Depending on the service, it is possible to:

a. verify that a message has been sent as requested
b. verify that a message has been received (and when)
c. send a message at a specified time or date
d. send an immediate reply to a message
e. create a 'list' of addresses to which a message may be sent
f. send binary files (eg. a graphics file, or a Logo program)
g. receive an itemized expense list on a monthly basis.

Electronic Mail Services in Canada

Three commercial electronic mail services are available in Canada:

a. Envoy 100 provides only electronic mail service. This service charges by the length of the message. There are separate charges for composing as well as for sending messages. The subscriber is also charged for screen information such as menus and bulletin board messages. A non-interactive option allows the user to compose a message off-line with a word processor, and be charged only once when sending. Because Envoy does not provide its own customized communications software, the user must purchase a commercial package.
b. Immedia is similar to Envoy 100, and charges by message length. Since composing always takes place off-line, Immedia charges only for sending and reading a message. Immedia is also capable of sending binary files. Immedia offers a custom MS-DOS communications software which fully automates the process of logging on, and message sending/receiving.
c. iNET 2000, of which Envoy 100 is a subset, offers access to hundreds of databases in Canada and the United States. This service charges for time spent on-line when sending and receiving messages, and variably for databases access. Like Immedia, iNET can send binary files. No customized communications software is available. iNET has an "associate option" which permits an organization to administer its own system, such as opening and closing mailboxes without charge, or providing internal bulletin board messages.

Because all three services use Datapac and 800- numbers, their great advantage is accessability from any location in Canada without additional long-distance charges to the learner. A service may allow 'open' or 'closed' access for institutions and companies. At an additional cost, an institution may become an associate user and waive the initial sign-up fee for individual users, and also provide bulletin board information.

Implications for Distance Education

If all learners had their own computers and modems, the implications for correspondence courses in distance education programmes would be considerable. Apart from course materials which must always be sent by regular mail, virtually all communications between learner and tutor takes place by way of electronic mail. Assignments, progress reports, requests for help, and on-going course discussion benefit by the immediacy of electronic mail. This quality of immediacy greatly reduces the frustration of slow response inherent in any correspondence course. However, the reality is that only a small proportion of distance learners have ready access to computers and modems, and therefore opportunities for incorporating electronic mail service into correspondence programmes are generally limited.

The University of Waterloo's new business management programme has circumvented this problem by having 50 lap-top computers available for lending to students. The McGill University Home Study programme takes advantage of computers already installed in schools across the country for its courses. Although not all have modems, the incidence of school modems in remote communities is high and growing rapidly. As well, most schools across the north already rely on electronic mail for inter-board communications, and this means that teachers can be easily reached for distance education courses.

The optimal situation is when the learner can send and receive messages from home. This is the advantage of the Waterloo programme where learners can borrow lap-top computers (though with a $600 deposit against loss or damage). A home computer serves two purposes: a tool for the course, and a messaging device for communications. For messaging, the learner enjoys the convenience of accessing the electronic mail service at any time, and may do so in the privacy of his home.

Where it is assumed learners are teachers who will use computers located in schools rather than in the home, there are often serious impediments to ease of use. For example, the modem is often located in the principal's office where its primary function is board-to-school messages. This arrangement can bring unease to both parties since in the case of both the principal and the learner (an employee working under the principal), messages are likely to be considered confidential, or at least, not for public reading. Everyone wants to share praise, but what learner wants his/her principal to have first reading of criticism arriving over the email system from a tutor ? The communications computer may sometimes differ from the computer used for assignments, meaning that outgoing messages must be transcribed, often by a third-party such as a secretary (and secretaries are not always willing to cooperate). Lastly, the office computer with its modem is often located at some distance from the school equipment used by learners for their courses. These practical factors add to frustration and nervous concerns for learners, and may inhibit their satisfaction with distance learning.

Operating Expenses for Electronic Mail Services

Apart from basic equipment expenses such as modem and communications software purchase, there are monthly charges for sending and receiving messages. Students are expected to pay their personal electronic mail expenses, though in most cases this expense is absorbed by their own schools. Electronic mail costs are reasonable. From our experience based on the first year of operation, the per student cost was just under $ 20. for mail from McGill tutors and the programme coordinator to the students.

Electronic Mail: Effect on Learner-Tutor Relations

One of the more important functions of electronic mail in a distance education programme is the ability to send regular reports from the student to the tutor. These do much to simulate the on-going dialogue between student and lecturer in class. A weekly progress report, sent on behalf of a group of learners in a remote community, keeps the tutor informed about how each member is faring, and provides a convenient forum for raising problems and airing successes. In turn, the tutor may send a report of his/her own by sharing information and experience between learners, clarifying points, adding examples or adding a personal touch. Where distance education learners are 'added' to a small Continuing Education class, the class can report back to the distance education group. There are sometimes administrative matters that are raised through the weekly report such as when marks or fee receipts will be sent. Finally, the weekly report helps tutors to identify inactive learners and flag the individual as a potential drop-out at an early stage. In some cases, the tutor may be able to provide help and encouragement for those who might otherwise give up.

Where regular mail is slow (is it quick anywhere ?), learners and institutions are well aware of major delays between sending assignments and receiving detailed comments from the course tutor. This delay becomes serious when assignment intervals are less than turn-around time. In other words, when assignment 3 must be sent before the tutor is able to return comments about assignment 2, and thereby depriving the learner of comments that might impinge upon the successful completion of assignment 3. The learner is then placed in the position of working uncertainly towards objectives sometimes defined in real terms by marks and written comments from the tutor.

Electronic mail clearly reduces the time gap from weeks to days where the tutor has the time and commitment to reply within a day or two of receiving an assignment. In this respect, a tutor who takes longer than a day or two may be severely censored by learners whose expectations of receiving a response to assignments are obviously conditioned by the speed of sending electronic mail messages.

Since messages are sent by computer, it is safe to assume that assignments are generally written with a word processing program and received by the tutor as text files. Although a paper copy may be printed by the tutor on receipt, this is reasonable only for printing

one or two page assignments. For longer papers, this time-consuming task can add hours and has been found to be a source of complaint amongst tutors. Assignments may also be sent to other learners in the group, though this may impose a communications expense which should be weighed carefully. Some learners are more verbose than others, and others simply believe that longer assignments are bound to receive higher marks than short ones. When assignments are shared between learners, a tutor may base a further assignment or mark upon reaction to the initial papers. The tutor may also react to an initial assignment submitted as an intermediate step leading to a revised final copy.

Depending on the nature of the assignment, many learners are very pleased to receive work done by their peers, especially creative work for which there may be immediate applications. Teachers fall into this category, and most are willing to share their efforts with their peers.

As well as text files, some electronic mail services have the ability to send binary files. Binary files open other opportunities, chiefly sending graphics files and programming language files. Graphics files are important in the Canadian North to the Inuit and Cree Indian people where script is based on syllabic characters rather than the Roman alphabet. Programming language files are useful for courses such as BASIC, Pascal or Logo. When received, they are saved on disk and can be run by the tutor to assess the performance of the program. However, since a paper copy obviously does not accompany the program, the code must be printed by the tutor. As pointed out earlier, printing computer files may be unreasonably time-consuming when this task must be done individually for each member of a large group.

From another perspective, the rule that allows distance learners to work from their homes anywhere in the country applies equally well to tutors. This can have great advantages for part-time tutors or those with home responsibilities. Correspondence courses with electronic mail can also open opportunities for qualified individuals who themselves live in a remote part of the country. There is no reason why a course could not be offered to learners scattered through Labrador, northern Quebec, the Northwest Territories and the Yukon, with the tutor located in an small Newfoundland village, and the course administered from a Montreal university.

In our experience, regular electronic mail communication enhances the working relationship between learner and tutor. In the university classroom, instruction is commonly expository and teacher-centered. In correspondence courses, especially those that are print-based, instruction shifts towards a learner-centered model in which the tutor's role is primarily that of offering support and guidance. Students learn independently of any class at a pace determined by them. Even though, courses may be delivered through lectures on audio or video tapes, the actual presence of the instructor is absent, and there can be no direct interaction between instructor and learner in conventional terms. On the other hand, the learner may enjoy a stronger relationship with the tutor than is ordinarily possible in large classes.

With electronic mail, communications is often on a one-to-one basis. Even reticent students, who through quietness are scarcely known to their university instructors, assume a different personality to their tutors with whom they correspond electronically. Moreover, their access to their tutors is privileged through electronic mail, and they can reasonably anticipate quick and considered assistance on a more personal level than is found in most undergraduate courses on a university campus.

Electronic Mail: Some Technical Problems

Northern regions, which rely upon satellite communications, are especially prone to faulty telephone reception and transmission. Transmission errors would be an even more serious problem except that commercial electronic mail services normally use error checking protocols. Through these protocols, each character of a message sent from the sender to the central computer is verified for accuracy; if incorrect, the home computer is instructed to re-transmit the character until correct. Even so, messages sometimes arrive at their destination in a truncated condition, having been cut short at some point by a transmission error. For example, a period (.) at the beginning of a line signals Envoy to send a message. If a period accidentally appears, the message abruptly terminates at this point. This problem is generally resolved when the mystified receiver requests the sender to repeat the message.

Telephone service in some remote villages can be poor or unreliable. Breakdowns in communications, such as normal long-distance telephone transmission, can sometimes interrupt courses. Where these breakdowns are frequent, students may be altogether prevented from continuing or even taking distance education courses. More serious problems arise when computer equipment breaks down. In remote areas, replacement computers and modems are rarely available. Since faulty equipment must be shipped out for repairs, the need for repairing critical equipment can effectively suspend electronic mail messaging for several months.

Directory information is a problem. Unlike FAX information, electronic mail addresses are rarely advertised on letterhead or notices. Searching for new subscribers, and learning the addresses of subscribers already on the system depends upon a willingness of parties to disclose this information. In many cases, electronic mail addresses are regarded as confidential. Directory information which ought to be equivalent to looking up entries in a telephone book, can be confusing and frustrating under the best of circumstances. Listings are available for individuals, business or institutions, but in the case of Envoy 100, the classification procedure does not lend itself to searching institutional categories such as universities or schools. The Envoy 100 subscriber cannot search for Immedia addresses because there is no central electronic mail directory for the country. A message may be exchanged between Envoy 100 and iNET 2000 subscribers, but not with Immedia subscribers unless special arrangements are made (Immedia does not use X-400 protocol).

For distance education, there are two non-commercial alternatives to the three electronic mail services described above. The first is an in-house mail system operated on a mainframe computers and often available at many colleges and universities. The second is software produced for the purpose by a third party such as AT & T, and installed on a mini or mainframe computer. Both must be evaluated for ease of use in terms of documentation, screen appearance and support services (not always a strength of computer programmers developed services). Access may be either direct (modem to modem) or through Datapac. Installation of a telephone bridge may be required to handle many simultaneous outside calls. If individual outside users pay for their own expenses, secretarial time is needed for billing and keeping accounts.

Conclusion

Rapid changes in communications technology are being exploited in many different ways by distance education institutions around the world. In Canada, size and population distribution are principal reasons which account for the historic importance of communications in the growth of the country. The delivery of correspondence, radio and television-based courses evolved as their respective technologies became available. More recently, telephone transmission systems, computers, switches and television sets are progressively merging into a unified "machine", a development which is also helping change the face of distance education. Almost every household in Canada has a telephone. That one fact today implies access to a remarkable range of communication possibilities: FAX, electronic mail, voice conferencing, computer conferencing, access to information providers, and digitized video image reception.

Electronic mail enhances some aspects of traditional correspondence course effectiveness by greatly reducing the turn-around time of messages, reports, and assignments sent between the student and the tutor. Faster response time helps both to improve working relationships and to reduce frustrations when learners require help. The nature of electronic mail messaging in itself appears to create a feeling of working one-to-one with the tutor. Finally, assuming that computers, modems and telephone lines are available, the costs of incorporating electronic mail into a distance education programme are quite affordable.

Bibliography:

Burpee, P and Wilson.B
Report on the McGill Home Study Programme, 1987-88
Unpublished report, McGill University, 1988

Communications for the Twenty-First Century,
Communications Canada, Ottawa, 1987

Mugridge, I and Kaufman,D
Distance Educatiuon in Canada
Croom Helm, London, 1986

Perry, W and Rumble, G
A Short Guide to Distance Education
International Extension College, Cambridge, 1987

Students with Severe Disabilities in the General Education Program: A Conceptual and Practical Framework for Rural School Administrators

Colleen A. Capper
Department of Educational Administration
University of Wisconsin-Madison
1186D Educational Sciences Building
1025 West Johnson St.
Madison, WI 53706

Running Head: STUDENTS WITH SEVERE DISABILITIES

Students with Severe Disabilities in the General Education Program: A Conceptual and Practical Framework for Rural School Administrators

Rural school administrators are no different than their urban counterparts in their concern for quality education. According to recent surveys, rural school effectiveness has been at the top of research priorities for rural school personnel (Barker & Muse, 1983; Dunne & Carlson, 1981; Helge, 1985; as cited in DeYoung, 1987). From these surveys, it could be assumed that rural school administrators would want a quality education for all their students, including those with disabilities.

P.L. 94-142 was intended to improve the quality of education for students with disabilities by mandating that all public schools provide a free, appropriate, public education, in the least restrictive environment. Yet, over a decade after passage of the Act, it was determined that students with severe disabilities were often unserved or underserved, and were most in need of improved services (Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, 1987). Rural schools in particular have been targeted as needing specific improvements in serving students with severe disabilities (OSERS, 1987) and rural administrators affirm that these students are the most difficult population to serve (Helge, 1984b). Rural schools have historically struggled with meeting state standards with typically limited resources (Sher, 1988), and Stephens and Turner (1988) acknowledge that "projected increases in the eligible pool of handicapped students would, of course, complicate further the programming, staffing, and financial difficulties faced by rural small school district superintendents and boards of education" (p. 62).

The possibilities of merging general and special education (Lilly, 1988; Reynolds, Wang, & Walberg, 1987; Stainback & Stainback, 1984; Will, 1986) may assist rural school districts in providing a quality education for all students. With the cost of special education averaging 2.3 times more than general education programs, and the cost of segregated special education placements averaging over 31% higher than costs in less restrictive environments like resource rooms (Decisions Resources Corporation, 1988), rural administrators

should seriously consider less restrictive environments and the restructuring of general and special education in their rural districts.

One central tenet of the collaboration between general and special education is that students with disabilities would not be bused to a special educational setting to receive services, but would attend their closest school in their community--their home school (Thousand, Fox, Reid, Godek, Williams, & Fox, 1988). Based on the effective schools research which supports site-based management (Bickel & Bickel, 1986; Rosenholtz, 1985), it is critical that school principals, with the support of their superintendent, assume the primary responsibility for general and special education in their schools.

Descriptions of exemplary rural programs have provided examples of how rural special educators are attempting to meet the needs of students with severe disabilities (Budde, 1983; Condon, 1983; Helge, 1984b; Snart, 1985; Tawney, 1979), including strategies used to serve rural students in the least restrictive environment (Helge, 1986; McKenzie, Hill, Sousie, York, & Baker, 1977; Singer, 1984; Thousand, et al., 1988; Zeph, 1983). However, rural school administrators need a broader framework in which to make decisions which will have an impact on all students within the entire education program (Gartner & Lipsky, 1987)--a framework which is informed by theory based research in educational administration.

This paper will first present one conceptual framework which rural school administrators can use to guide their decision-making for all students. Second, rural school administrators can use the framework to define current practices in their districts, and the results of a recent study will illustrate this process. Third, the conceptual model will be used to develop alternatives when educating students with disabilities within the structure of the general education program in rural settings--alternatives which can enhance the effectiveness of the entire school program.

Conceptual Framework

To help modern managers make sense of and use the knowledge emanating from the plethora of organizational studies and theories, Bolman and Deal (1984) categorized this research and literature into four frames. Their

approach is a response to the question: "What does organization theory and research have to say that is genuinely important and useful to practitioners?" (p. xiii). They further propose that

> ". . . frames are windows on the world. . . Frames help us to order the world and decide what action to take. Every manager uses a personal frame, or image, of organizations to gather information, make judgments, and get things done. . . Understanding organizations is nearly impossible when the manager is unconsciously wed to a single, narrow perspective. . . managers who understand their own frame--and who can adeptly rely on more than one limited perspective--are better equipped to understand and manage the complex everyday world of organizations" (pp. 4-5).

The frames in part

1. "Tell the individual what is important and what can be safely ignored.
2. Group a lot of different pieces of information into patterns or concepts" (p. 16).

The four frames Bolman and Deal (1984) use to categorize organizational theory include the structural frame, human resource frame, political frame, and symbolic frame. While not comprehensive, due to the limits of this paper, some basic assumptions and limitations of each frame are presented in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 about here

Current Practices

One useful way for the rural school administrator to utilize Bolman and Deal's frames is to illuminate current special education practices in their district and/or school. To illustrate this function of the frames, some results of a recent study which focused on rural students with severe disabilities (Capper, 1988) will be described using the frames. The study explored the product, the process, and the rural context of implementing P.L. 94-142 with students with severe disabilities. Although the sample was limited to three students in three, disadvantaged, rural school districts, the results of the study confirm and illustrate issues associated with meeting the needs of

these students in these settings (see summary in Table 2).

Insert Table 2 about here

Structural Frame

Current practices for rural students with severe disabilities in these districts from the structural view include classroom location, school policy, and curriculum. Most services for this population take place in school-based "units" where all students with the label of moderate to severe disabilities are bused. These classroom are located away from the general education classrooms in a separate wing, separate hall, or separate building. School policies either did not include students with disabilities, or special needs are allocated a separate section in the faculty or student handbook. For example, grading procedures for general and special education are in separate sections of the school handbook. Also, one school's floor plan, located in the student handbook, did not include the rooms for students with special needs. Finally, in terms of curriculum, while much attention is given to general education students' basic skills achievement, the curriculum for students with severe disabilities is virtually non-existent, with student instructional time ranging from 0% to little over 33% of the school day.

Human Resource Frame

Two primary current practices from the Human Resource perspective are the assumption that students with severe disabilities have very limited human potential and the belief that "spacial services" are the most effective. The education of these students is provided mostly on a "feeling sorry for" basis, rather than encouraging the development of individual potential. For example, one principal stated "you know, there isn't much we can do except make her comfortable. . . it's too bad these things happen." Probably due to the fact that rural school administrators most often emulate urban service delivery (Capper, 1988c), they perceive that separate service delivery is most effective. For example, one administrator proudly described the separate transportation service for students with moderate to severe disabilities including separate buses, bus

drivers, and bus aides, which picked up students "right at their front door." He did not consider the benefits for these students when attending their own local school, and the fact that because none of the students with special needs on the bus are verbal, and several students exhibit challenging behaviors, positive models of social interaction are non-existent.

Political Frame

The political perspective illuminates three other current practices for rural students with severe disabilities, in the area of scarce resources, competition for limited funding, and lack of bargaining power. Because rural school districts often do not have adequate resources to meet state mandates, and personnel feel students with severe disabilities have limited potential, these students are a low priority on the budget allocations. Teachers receive very little support for instructional materials. Rather than a concern for a quality education for all students and allocating resources accordingly, the special and general education components are viewed as competing for these scarce resources. Finally, rural parents and their children with severe disabilities have little power in influencing services (see a related article Capper, 1988a). Advocates are not easily accessible and parents are not organized to support change.

Symbolic Frame

The symbolic frame is perhaps more difficult to utilize in conceptualizing current practices in rural schools, but, as can be confirmed by the research and literature on school culture, this frame is vitally important. Rural school administrators can consider what "message" the practices in the structural, human resource, and political frames are conveying to school personnel, students, and the community about what is valued in the school. Historically, compliance indicators have been used to symbolize meeting student needs appropriately. However, in Capper's (1988b) study, even though all three districts are technically in compliance with P.L. 94-142, the dearth of instruction time and the lack of social interaction with peers would lead one to question the meaning of the school day for these students. In addition, the student isolation and the lack of peer interaction conveys a

message to general education students that persons with disabilities have little to offer to them and have less human value (see Lipsky & Gartner, 1987).

Not only can the four frames be used to analyze current practices in rural education, but the frames can also guide the development of goals and processes for restructuring general education to meet the needs of all students. Herbers (1988) and Holbrook (1988) discuss how local school administrators can use the frames to organize the process of integrating students into the general education program. The focus of this paper is developing positive goals for both general and special education, considering all four perspectives in that development.

New Possibilities for All Students

Bolman and Deal (1984) contend ". . . each frame has its own vision of reality. Only when managers can look at organizations through the four are they likely to appreciate the depth and complexity of organizational life. Successful managers rely intuitively on the different frames, blending them into a coherent, pragmatic, personal theory of organizations" (p. 6). Thus, when rural school administrators consider the restructuring of general and special education in their own school, they should consider all four frames. Examples of how rural school administrators can use the four perspectives to develop integrative goals for all students are described and summarized in Table 3.

Insert Table 3 about here

Summary

There can be no doubt that rural school administrators would desire a quality education for all students, including those with even the most severe disabilities. Restructuring rural schools and ushering in a collaborative arrangement between general and special education can be one step towards extending limited resources and instituting a quality education for all students.

The utility of the multi-frame view, supported by the literature in organizational theory and behavior and advocated by Bolman and Deal, is that it forces rural school administrators out of viewing their schools from

narrow and limited perspectives. In addition the frames provide the school administrator with a decision-making framework to define current practice and to outline future goals and a vision which encompass all students regardless of differences in learning. In the midst of the current increase in student diversity in our rural schools, a multi-frame perspective can move rural school administrators from surviving to thriving--to not only face the challenges, but embrace them.

References

Bickel, W. E. & Bickel, D. D. (1986). Effective schools, classrooms, and instruction: Implications for special education. Exceptional Children, 52, 489-500.

Bolman, L. G. & Deal, T. E. (1984). Modern Approaches to Understanding and Managing Organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Budde, R. M. (1983). Rural service delivery models for severely and profoundly multiple handicapped persons in rural and isolated regions. Unpublished manuscript, George Peabody college of Vanderbilt University, Department of Special Education.

Capper, C. A. (1988a). The Squeaky Wheel of Policy Implementation: Poor Children with Disabilities and Disadvantaged School Districts. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Capper, C. A. (1988b). Students with Low Incidence Disabilities in Disadvantaged, Rural Settings. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Capper, C. A. (1988c). Country Road-Level Bureaucracy: Special Education in the Context of Rural Poverty. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Condon, M. (1983). Alternative instructional arrangements and delivery systems for low-incidence handicapped children. Bellingham, WA: National Rural Development Institute.

DeYoung, A. J. (1987). The status of American rural education research: An integrated review and commentary. Review of Educational Research, 57(2), 123-148.

Decision Resources Corporation (1988, December 7). Education of the Handicapped. Special Ed Costs Hold Steady: About Twice the Price of Regular Ed. pp. 1-3. (Available from Capitol Publications, Inc. 1101 King St., P.O. Box 1453, Alexandria, Va. 22313).

Gartner, A., & Lipsky, D. K. (1987). Beyond special education: Toward a quality system for all students. Harvard Educational Review, 57, 367-395.

Helge, D. I. (1984a). The state of the art of rural special education. Exceptional Children, 50, 294-305.

Helge, D. I. (1984b). Models for serving rural students with low incidence handicapping conditions. Exceptional Children, 50(4), 313-324.

Helge, D. I. (1986). Sample strategies used to serve rural students in the least restrictive environment. Unpublished manuscript.

Herbers, D. (1988). The principal's role in the merger of regular and special education. Unpublished manuscript, University of Wisconsin, Department of Educational Administration: Madison, WI

Holbrook, J. (1988). Full integration: Making it happen in an elementary school in a small Midwest town in the United States. Unpublished manuscript, University of Wisconsin, Department of Educational Administration: Madison, WI

Lilly, M. S. (1988). The regular education initiative: A force for change in general and special education. Education and Training in Mental Retardation, 23(4), 253-260.

Lipsky, D. K., & Gartner, A. (1987). Capable of achievement and worthy of respect: Education for the handicapped as if they were full-fledged human beings. Exceptional Children, 54, 61.

McKenzie, H. S., Hill, M., Sousie, S., York, R., & Baker, K. (1977). Special education training to facilitate rural, community-based programs for the severely handicapped. In E. Sontag (Ed.), Educational programming for the severely and profoundly handicapped (pp. 96-108). Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children, Division on Mental Retardation.

Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services. (1987). Implementation of the Education of the Handicapped Act (Public Law 94-142). Ninth annual Report to Congress. Washington, DC: Division of Innovation and Development. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 283 355)

Reynolds, M.C., Wang, M. C. & Walberg, H. J. (1987). The necessary restructuring of special and regular education. Exceptional Children, 53, 391-398.

Rosenholtz, S. J. (1985). Effective schools: Interpreting the evidence. American Journal of Education, 93, 352-388.

Sher, J. (1988). Why rural education has not received its "fair share" of funding--and what to do about it. Journal of Rural and Small Schools, 2(2), 31-37.

Singer, G. J. (1984). An alternative to the institution for young people with severely handicapping conditions in a rural community. JASH, 9, 251-261.

Snart, F. (1985). Issues associated with the provision of educational services to low-incidence handicapped students in rural areas. Canadian Journal for Exceptional children, 1, 142-145

Stainback, W. & Stainback, S. (1984). A rationale for the merger of special and regular education. Exceptional Children, 51, 102-111.

Stephens, R. E. & Turner, W. G. (1988). Leadership for Rural Schools. American Association of School Administrators, Arlington, VA.

Tawney, J. W. (1979). Using telecommunications technology to instruct rural severely handicapped children. Exceptional Children, 46, 118-125.

Thousand, J. S., Fox, T. J., Reid, R., Godek, J., Williams, W., & Fox, W. L. (1986). The Homecoming Model: Educating Students Who Present Intensive Educational Challenges Within Regular Education Environments. Center for Developmental Disabilities, University of Vermont: Burlington, VT.

Will, M. C. (1986). Educating children with learning problems: A shared responsibility. Exceptional Children, 46, 411-413.

Zeph, L. A. (1983). Regular classroom placement options for students with severe and multiple special needs: A potential solution to a rural problem. Paper presented at the annual conference of the Association for the Severely Handicapped, San Francisco. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 242 167)

Table 1
Bolman and Deal's (1984) Conceptual Framework of Organizational Theory and Behavior

Structural Frame
Assumptions
1. Organizations exist primarily to accomplish established goals.
2. For any organization, there is a structure appropriate to the goals, the environment, the technology, and the participants.
3. Organizations work most effectively when environmental turbulence and the personal preferences of participants are constrained by norms of rationality.
4. Specialization permits higher levels of individual expertise and performance.
5. Coordination and control are accomplished best through the exercise of authority and impersonal rules.
6. Structures can be systematically designed and implemented.
7. Organizational problems usually reflect an inappropriate structure and can be resolved through redesign and reorganization. (p. 32).

Limitations
1. Fails to see that human behavior is sometimes non-rational
2. It avoids power and conflict.
3. Rationality only is applicable in certain and predictable processes and outcomes.

Human Resource Frame
Assumptions
1. Organizations exist to serve human needs.
2. Organizations and people need each other.
3. When the fit between the individual and the organization is poor, one or both will suffer.
4. When the fit is good between the individual and the organization, both benefit.
5. Conflict is seen as a failure of leadership.

Limitations
1. It tends to impose middle class values.
2. Ignores individual differences.
3. Too optimistic about integrating individual and organizational needs.

4. Has a negative view of authority, and has not addressed power and scarce resources.

Political Frame
Assumptions
1. Most of the important decisions in organizations involve the allocation of scarce resources.
2. Organizations are coalitions composed of a number of individuals and interest groups.
3. Individuals and interest groups differ in their values, preferences, beliefs, information, and perceptions of reality.
4. Organizational goals and decisions emerge from ongoing processes of bargaining, negotiation, and jockeying for position among individuals and groups.
5. Because of scarce resources and enduring differences, power and conflict are central features of organizational life. (p. 109). (Conflict is unavoidable and can be productive)

Limitations
1. Underestimates the significance of rational and collaborative processes.
2. The frame is cynical and pessimistic.
3. It tends to be amoral. It is not important what you accomplish, but whether you win.

Symbolic Frame
Assumptions
1. What is most important about any event is not what happened but the meaning of what happened.
2. The meaning of an event is determined not simply by what happened but by the ways that humans interpret what happened.
3. Many of the most significant events and processes in organizations are substantially ambiguous or uncertain--it is often difficult or impossible to know what happened, why it happened, or what will happen next.
4. Ambiguity and uncertainty undermine rational approaches to analysis, problem solving, and decision making.
5. When faced with uncertainty and ambiguity, humans create symbols to reduce the ambiguity, resolve confusion, increase predictability, and provide direction. Events themselves may remain illogical,

random, fluid, and meaningless, but human symbols make them seem otherwise (p. 150)

Limitations
1. Tension with rationality
2. Looks at appearances.
3. When symbols do not have meaning, it backfires.
4. Masks or inflates your original goals.

Table 2
One Example of Conceptualizing Current Practices in Rural Special Education

Structural Frame
1. Classroom isolation
2. A limited curriculum
3. Not an integral part of school policies

Human Resource Frame
1. "Special services" are most effective
2. Students are perceived as having limited human potential

Political Frame
1. A low priority in budget allocations
2. Special and general education compete for resources
3. Parents and students have little bargaining power

Symbolic Frame
1. Use compliance indicators to symbolize meeting student needs
2. Student isolation and lack of peer interaction conveys a value of intolerance for human differences.

Table 3
New Possibilities for All Students

Structural Frame
1. Students attend general education classrooms in their local school.
2. School policies include all students in an integrated way.
3. Special and general education teachers share expertise.

Human Resource Frame
1. Practice of developing optimum human potential in each student.
2. Education seeks to be focused on student needs, rather than the student forced to adapt to the existing programs.
3. Learning is cooperative rather than competitive, and supportive of student differences.

Political Frame
1. Families and students with and without disabilities form a united coalition to obtain more resources from state levels.
2. Families advocate for one another.
3. Rural districts have their own system advocate for state level influence.

Symbolic Frame
1. School philosophy and vision pertain to all students.
2. State awards (i.e., for excellence or effectiveness) include criteria for all students.
3. All school rituals and ceremonies (i.e., awards day, graduation) are for all students.

Developing Administrative Vision

Edward W. Chance, Ph.D.
Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies
College of Education
University of Oklahoma
Norman, Oklahoma 73019

Prepared for the
National Rural and Small Schools Consortium
Marck, 1989
Ft. Lauderdale, Florida

Developing Administrative Vision

The decade of the 1980's will long be remembered as a time that brought a semblance of reform to the American educational system. Although it is clear that much of the reform movement has been useful in refocusing the mission of public education in this country it has become obvious that the level of success of any reform depends upon the leadership manifested in schools in this country. Specifically, it can be unequivocally stated that there is a strong correlation between an effective building level administrator and the ability of a school to accomplish its expressed goals and objectives.

Educational studies have long stressed the importance for administrators to possess both long and short term goals, educational objectives, and a well thought out educational philosophy. These have been identified as significant aspects in the research relating to effective leaders and leadership capacities (Sweeney, 1982; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982; Manasse, 1985; and Russell, Maggarella, White, and Maurer, 1985). Recently there has appeared in the literature a much broader and encompassing concept; that is the notion of vision. Visionary leadership has emerged as a significant characteristic of high performing building administrators (Blumberg and Greenfield, 1980). The U.S. Department of Education publication, Principal Selection Guide (1987), states that "effective school leaders have broad visions that are clear, active, ambitious, and performance oriented" (p. 5). It further indicates that effective administrators "create conditions to help them realize their vision" (p. 6).

As important as vision is to the effectiveness of leadership, it is somehow very elusive. There is no item analysis, no magic formula, and no one book that can recount how vision is formed, activated, or sustained. However, it is true that vision is the force, the dream, towards which effective administrators continually strive in the shaping of their individual schools for success. It is also obvious that rural administrators today when confronted by a multitude of tasks, overwhelming economic restrictions, and increased community concerns must have a strong vision. Vision provides the impetus and power for rural schools to achieve success.

This paper will provide assistance to the current or potential administrator by addressing the following questions: "What is vision?", "Why is it important?", and "How can one further clarify or develop an educational vision?"

What Is Vision?

The literature provides a great many definitions of vision. Some of these definitions are very general while others are much more specific and relate to only one specialized aspect. Manasse (1985) provided a very workable generic definition by describing vision as "the development, transmission, and implementation of a desirable future" (p. 150). Batsis (1987) envisioned vision as more comprehensive than goals and objectives because it allows one to see how these fit into the broader structure of the organization. Hickman and Silva (1984) described vision as "a mental journey from the known to the unknown ... creating the future from a montage of facts, hopes, dreams ... and opportunities" (p. 151). Shieve and Shoenheit (1987) indicated that "a vision is a blueprint of a desired state. It is an image of a preferred condition that we work to achieve in the future" (p. 94). Vision may also deeply impact the organization because "exemplary leaders imagine an exciting ... and focused future for their organizations. ... They have visions of what might be, and they believe they can make it happen" (Kouzes and Posner, 1984, p. 1). In an extensive study of eight highly effective principals, Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) found that those with vision attempt to create an environment where their personal values provide a firm foundation for the school. Manasse (1982) also found that personal values were important. She indicated that effective administrators have a vision of a school that is solidly established and entrenched on publicly articulated values. These values are openly discussed and explained within the educational community. An exhaustive study of leadership behavior by a team of University of Texas researchers (Rutherford, 1985) found that effective administrators could discuss the vision of their school without hesitation and could readily identify both long range and short range goals. Interestingly, this study found that teachers within the school environment were well aware of the administrative vision and could relate it to others. Perhaps, Bennis and Nanus (1985) said it

best when they stated that "vision grabs" and is "compelling" (p. 28).

In a recent synthesis of the literature relating to visionary leadership, Grady and LeSourd (1988) identified five dominant qualities of a leader with vision. They found that leaders with vision are deeply guided and motivated by personal values. They also established that these leaders have an intense commitment to the achievement of goals which they have identified as important for the organization. Additionally, visionary leaders strive to develop a common sense of purpose and direction among all members of their organization. They also found that visionary leaders are organizational innovators. Finally, these leaders consistently project and attest to a future that represents something better.

However one defines vision, it is obvious that truly effective administrators have one. Vision is often highly personal although it conceivably can be shaped a plural parentage of teachers, parents, and students (Murphy, 1988). Vision is a destination albeit there may be many detours and roadblocks before the objective is achieved. Vision is essentially intangible. It can not be touched, felt, or seen but it is essential that it exist. Vision is a sweet dream of the future regardless of organizational or environmental restraints. It provides a sense of direction for the school. A visionary administrator is not afraid of stating, "This is what I believe; this is what the school can accomplish; and this is where we are going to be in one year, five years, and ten years." Vision is a powerful force that guides, cajoles, directs, and facilitates accomplishment.

Why Is It Important?

Schools have functioned, but not always successfully, for the past one hundred years under the precept of the bureaucratic model. This meant that rules, a system to enforce compliance, an explicitly defined structure, and the specialization of tasks and decision-making became the norm. Many administrators traditionally utilized an authorative hierarchical style of leadership (Barth, 1987). Control and order was more important than heretical concepts such as creativity and flexibility. However, given the nature of teacher militancy and demands for active involvement in the daily functioning of the school, as well as an

increased demand by the public for accountability, it should be obvious that the old style of administrative dictat will no longer be acceptable.

Administrators must move from this authoritarian, managerial mode of operation to one of proactive leadership. It is crucial that administrators develop a vision that not only calls for excellence but establishes an environment in which a school may achieve excellence. Administrators must be willing to ask the questions, "What are we doing, is it working for us, can it be done in a better way to accomplish our goals?" and to listen to the answers whether they are good or bad. Administrators who are leaders, and not simply managers, must be able to articulate and strive towards the organization they envision. Sergiovanni (1987) has identified six principles vital to administrators today. These are the principles of cooperation, empowerment, responsibility, accountability, meaningfulness, and ability-authority. It must be understood that this movement towards a new leadership mode does not mean that aspects of the bureaucratic model that coordinate or enhance the organization should be jettisoned. Rather, the excesses and abuses of the bureaucratic model should be eliminated.

An administrator with vision is able to maintain a focus on that vision through any turmoil or change. Rutherford (1985) found that teachers recognize the existence of an administrative vision with the result being that both they and students identify school as a good place. He ascertained that visionary leaders provide meaningful direction to seemingly insignificant daily activities. A vision according to Littky and Fried (1988) helps unify a school and raises the emotional mood of those in the organization. All within the successful organization collegially work together to achieve the vision and believe their contributions are important in achieving the vision (Manasse, 1985).

Vision serves as a guide for the school's administrators, faculty, students, and support staff. It helps set the climate for the school because expectations, goals, and purposes are clear and cogent. Vision attains results and as it does teachers and students are aware of their accomplishments and experience a sense of pride in their involvement.

How to Clarify/Develop a Vision

When one first begins to really think of his/her educational vision it is important to remember that it begins within the individual leader. Vision originates as a personal concept and remains so long after the organization has bought into it. Vision reflects personal values, a personal assessment of the organization, personal views of possibilities, and one's professional values.

In developing a personal vision, one needs to ask the following questions:

What are my five greatest strengths?
What are my five greatest weaknesses?
What are three things I value most in life?
What style of leadership am I most comfortable with?
What are the most important things I want to accomplish in this school?
How would I like to be remembered as an administrator?
What do I want to prove as a leader?

Once these questions are honestly answered, then it is possible to begin to formulate or further clarify one's vision.

The next step is to carefully evaluate one's answers and then begin writing a vision statement for an individual school or district. That vision statement can be personal or organizational and often will reflect universal values such as equity and justice (Shieve and Shoenheit, 1987). As one writes this personal vision statement it must reflect what one wants to accomplish. This statement should not be hampered by the reality of organizational or economic and political restraints. It should reflect what one ideally want to accomplish, what the organization should be in an idealistic sense. The total vision statement should be short and no longer than 50 words. After this visionary statement is written, begin to identify strategies for communicating that vision to the faculty and students. Think of a daily schedule and how one might convey that vision through normal operational activities. This is important because communication facilitates the validation of the vision.

A second component of developing and implementing vision is to establish an organizational one. This is

done in much the same manner as for the personal vision. Some of the questions that can be asked are:

> What are the strengths of this school?
> What are its weaknesses?
> What are external factors that help or hinder the proper functioning of this organization?
> What is the existing relationship between the various components of this organization?
> What are the interpersonal strengths and weaknesses of this organization?

Additional questions that are useful have been identified by Kouzes and Posner (1987) as:

> How would you like to change the world for yourself and your organization?
> If you could invent the future, what future would you invent for yourself and your organization?
> What does your ideal organization look like? (p. 102)

After one has answered these questions, it is then appropriate to identify how the knowledge of the organization can be utilized to facilitate the implementation of the vision statement. This is the time to set priorities of what should and could be accomplished in both the short and long term. This is a good time to begin to involve others in the process of establishing methodology for the implementation of the vision as well as areas of responsibility. The more others are involved at this stage, the more amenable they are to accept responsibility for the successful completion of a specific task. This aspect of vision is not easy and not necessarily tidy. It behooves the administrator to not lose sight of his/her personal vision. It remains the guiding force.

The final component of vision is future vision. Manasse (1985) indicated that "leaders use future vision to focus the attention of their organization on accomplishing the possible rather than maintaining what exists" (p. 158). Future vision often utilizes metaphorical statements, symbols, or personal models. Pronouncements such as "Striving for Excellence", "Excellence and Equity", and "A Time for Greatness" provide impetus and direction for the organization. Future vision reflects the use of creativity and

imagination. It should indicate the ideal school. This provides a target for the organization to strive towards. As the future vision is articulated again, it is crucial that the administrator models effective behaviors towards securing the vision.

Shieve and Shoenheit (1987) identified five distinct steps for the actualization of vision. These are: (1) see it, (2) own it, (3) make this personal vision a public/organizational one, (4) develop strategies to achieve it, and (5) begin acting on the vision (p. 99). The significant aspect is that a vision must be acted upon. Involvement of others, selling the vision through effective communication and utilizing resources wisely all facilitate implementation of the vision.

Sustaining the Vision

Effective administrators allocate funding, materials, and time in pursuit of the vision. They also systematically and judiciously utilize instructional management strategies, advantageous scheduling, and recognition and rewards to maintain the school's focus. These leaders initiate, monitor, motivate, facilitate, and orchestrate to reach the vision. The effective visionary leader is constantly in pursuit of a school climate that enhances learning and advances teacher productivity.

Communication of the vision is crucial. As Rutherford (1985) found, others have to know what the vision is and be able to articulate and publicize it in their own way. That means the vision should be communicated to everyone that will listen - teachers, custodians, bus drivers, students, cooks, parents, and the community at large. People need to hear it, understand in it, and accept it before they can fully support it. The only roadblock to the scope and variety of the communication is the limit of the administrator's imagination. Visionary leaders are "people" oriented. They believe that the vision is important and because they exhibit essential human relation skills others also begin to exhibit these attributes. This contagious reaction is one that moves the school inexorably toward the reality of the vision.

Administrators with vision engage their staff in decision making and problem solving that shape organizational activities, teacher performance, and student behavior and learning. This involvement of the

staff not only builds collegiality but exhibits to all what has been deemed organizationally important (Peterson, 1986). The AASA monograph, Challenges for School Leaders (1988), identified two important aspects that not only facilitate the implementation but assist in sustaining the vision. The first is to periodically free administrators from daily tasks so that a renewal can take place through attendance at meaningful workshops, conferences, or visits to other schools which have been identified as effective. The second suggestion is to allow the administrative staff to spend quality time in the summer for strategic planning. This planning could focus on how far the organization has progressed and how can the school can continue to move towards the fulfillment of the vision in the coming year. If the vision is to be sustained, there must be an opportunity for renewal and an evaluation of programmatic approaches.

Conclusion

This past decade has seen tremendous demands and increased expectations placed on the American educational system. The effective school movement, national reform challenges, and increased claims to traditional authority by faculty and staff have had a profound impact on both urban and rural schools and administrators. Rural administrators must concern themselves not only with these movements but also with declining economic resources, magnified community expectations, outmoded facilities, and shrinking student populations. If these concerns are not enough to overwhelm the typical rural administrator, then add the fact that many rural administrators also teach and serve as counselors or coaches. It is no wonder then that time becomes the most precious commodity to these rural leaders. Now to all of this, these administrators are advised that they must also have a vision.

A recent study by Chance and Lingren (1988) of over five hundred rural principals found that a vast majority considered themselves instructional leaders yet rarely spend time in teachers' classrooms. This study also ascertained that the predominant leadership style of both male and female principals was more concerned with task completion than with individual needs or school climate. When the data was further

analyzed it was concluded that administrators often lack time to accomplish all their goals.

Despite these findings, examples of effective administrators who actively practice instructional leadership serve to illustrate that outstanding administrators do find time to accomplish established goals. These principals believe in effective schools where teachers can instruct and all students can learn. These administrators possess vision. Successful rural administrators are more than officers; they are leaders. Leaders understand that without direction and purpose; programs, facilities, and morale will slowly begin to deteriorate, accelerating as time passes. To prevent this rural administrators must prioritize activities and goals, involve others in decision making, continue their professional growth, and provide impetus and guidance to the school. They must also, as Barth (1988) states, believe in teachers, attribute much success to them, and not be afraid to admit that an administrator may not know everything and may need assistance. Simply put, the successful, effective administrator must develop, implement, and sustain the vision of not what the school <u>should</u> be but what the school <u>will</u> be. Vision, therefore, should be an administrator's first priority.

Rural schools are a reality of the American public educational system. These schools should never assume they are second class or handicapped because of that ruralness. Instead, with a vision, they can capitalize on and utilize the attributes that ruralness and smallness provides, and they can become great. Vision provides only the destination, but when a visionary leader collaborates with the stakeholders of the school, the trip can be an exciting and rewarding one.

References

American Association of School Administrators. (1988). Challenges for school leaders. Reston, Virginia: Author.

Barth, R.S. (1987). The principal and the profession of teaching. In W. Greenfield (Ed.), Instructional Leadership: Concepts, issues and controversies (pp. 249-270). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Barth, R.S. (1988). Principals, teachers, and school leadership. Phi Delta Kappan, 69 (9), 639-647.

Batsis, T.M. (1987, April). Characteristics of excellent principals. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Catholic Educational Association, New Orleans, LA.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). Leaders: The strategies for taking charge. New York: Harper and Row.

Blumberg, A., & Greenfield, W. (1980). The effective principal: Perspectives on school leadership. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Chance, E.W., & Lingren, C. (1988, September). The great plains rural principal: Characteristics and leadership style. A paper presented at the National Rural Education Association National convention, Bismarck, ND.

Grady, M.L., & LeSourd, S.J. (1988, August). Principals' attitudes toward visionary leadership. A paper presented at the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration National Conference, Kalamazoo, MI.

Hickman, C.R., & Silva, M. (1984). Creating excellence: Managing corporate culture, strategy, and change in the new age. New York: New American Library.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B.Z. (1987). The leadership challenge: How to get extraordinary things done in organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Leithwood, K.A., & Montgomery, D.J. (1986). The principal profile. Toronto, Ontario: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Littky, D., & Fried, R. (1988, January). The Challenge to make good school great. NEA Today, pp. 4-8.

Manasse, A.L. (1982, March). Effective principals: Effective at what? Principal, 61 (4), 10-15.

Manasse, A.L. (1985, Fall). Vision and leadership: Paying attention to intention. Peabody Journal of Education, 63 (1), 150-173.

Murphy, J.T. (1988, May). The unheroic side of leadership: Notes from the swamp. Phi Delta Kappan, 69 (9), 654-659.
Peterson, K.D. (1985, Fall). Vision and problem finding in principals' work: Values and cognition in administration. Peabody Journal of Education, 63 (1), 87-106.
Rutherford, W.L. (1985). School principals as effective leaders. Phi Delta Kappan, 67 (1), 31-34.
Sergiovanni, T.J. (1987). The principalship: A reflective practice perspective. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
Shieve, L.T., & Shoenheit, M.B. (1987). Vision and the work life of educational leaders. In L.T. Shieve & M.B. Shoenheit (Eds.), Leadership: Examining the elusive (p. 93-104). Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
Sweeney, J.T. (1982). Research synthesis on effective school leadership. Educational Leadership, 39 (5), 346-352.
U.S. Department of Education. (1987). Principal selection guide. Washington, D.C.: Author.

Carroll B. Coakley, Ph.D, Professor
Technological and Adult Education
The University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-3400

EDUCATION AND PLACEMENT PROGRAM FOR AT-RISK RURAL ADULTS

INTRODUCTION

The University of Tennessee operates multi-purpose educational programs in Service Delivery Area 4, Tennessee. The programs are located in four rural communities serving at-risk adults in Anderson, Blount, Campbell, Cumberland, Loudon, Morgan, and Roane counties. The program offers supplemental services to participants not presently being served or who do not qualify for program activities. The program coordinates training and educational activities with ongoing Job Training Partnership Act administrative offices and other program operations. Referral/partnership agreements are arranged for those participants who need to complete their GED or to obtain private-sector employment.

PURPOSE

The purpose of the program is to provide educational and employment services to a large percentage of high school dropouts and unemployed individuals. The program is designed to offer supplemental services and coordinate job development and placement with JTPA administrative personnel. Specific objectives of the program are:

1. to enroll participants who are economically disadvantaged high school dropouts,

2. to provide information that will assist the participant in selecting a realistic career goal,

3. to conduct individual and group counseling in order to develop life coping skills,

4. to teach pre-GED/GED classes that will enable participants to transfer into the primary labor force,

5. to teach employment, communication, comprehension, and computational skills needed to enter the labor market,

6. to teach proper interview techniques,

7. to develop realistic job opportunities and transferable employability skills,

8. to place participants using private sector employment opportunities, and

9. to conduct post-placement follow-up activities to ensure job retention.

RELEVANCE

Program activities include basic education, life skills and motivational training, and pre-employment training. The program serves youth and adults who need educational assistance, individuals who have already dropped out of high school, welfare and other recipients or government assistance, and displaced homemakers. The program is structured and designed to help remove barriers to employment commonly experienced by this group. These barriers include low self-esteem, poor academic skills, lack of knowledge about the world of work, and the lack of essential job-seeking and retention skills. The instructional format is competency based which leads participants to attain specific education, employment and similar skills in order to function successfully in society.

Reaching individuals in rural areas can be more difficult than trying to develop a program for their large city counterparts. Not only do resources tend to be limited, but geographic areas are larger and populations are smaller. As a result, many service providers are needed in rural areas because there are generally fewer sources of help.

Those who are academically deficient usually have higher unemployment rates, longer periods of unemployment, and lower wages when they do find work. Often they leave school because of an unhappy experience (low self-esteem, poor academic performance, family difficulties or impending parenthood). Circumstances such as these make finding and keeping a job nearly impossible. Many have little or no work experience and lack essential job-finding skills. The ability to understand and respond to a "classified ad", to schedule and complete an interview, or to fill out an application form are difficult and almost impossible tasks. If one does become employed, he or she may not possess the essential work habits such as punctuality, neatness, and politeness needed to retain and succeed on the job.

RECRUITMENT AND ASSESSMENT

The program staff recruits participants by establishing contacts with community organizations and institutions that serve the target population. The purpose of these contacts is to inform the community about the establishment of the program, to build relationships, and to discuss and negotiate agreements for referrals and resource exchanges. Examples of organizations that are contacted include public high schools, government assistance offices, and community-based organizations. Contacts are made through business visits, telephone calls, group presentations and mass mailings.

An assessment of each participant's educational personal needs is conducted upon his or her acceptance into the program. The purpose of the assessment is to obtain information about the participant's vocational, academic, and motivational strengths and weaknesses in order to design an appropriate individualized plan for each person. Formal and standardized tests are administered to determine academic levels. A job readiness assessment test and an untimed multiple choice examination are used to measure each participant's understanding of the "work a day" world.

GENERAL EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT (GED) INSTRUCTION

Participants for the program of at-risk rural adults usually require remedial instruction to improve their skills. Some participants with low academic skills require basic skills on pre-GED instruction. Others with higher academic skill need instruction which prepares them to receive the GED diploma. Whatever the academic skills are upon entry into the program, participants receive instruction that is designed to meet their individual needs. Instruction is developed and presented in a way to increase the likelihood of success in the program which will increase the possibility of success in the private sector.

The state of Tennessee began administering the 1988 edition of the GED examination on September 1, 1988. Test items on this edition are classified according to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Items on the test focus on use rather than merely the recitation of knowledge and information. Mere recall of information is not measured. Instead the test includes items that require a higher level of cognitive skills. The program utilizes a well designed competency based curriculum applicable to the new GED test. Pre and post tests are administered to determine competency in each instructional area.

PRE-EMPLOYMENT TRAINING (PET)

The PET segment is the foundation and essential portion of the program. Many participants have never been employed by private sector employers; therefore, they are unaware of the initial requirement needed for entry level employment. Others have been employed but have been unable to hold a position due to poor work habits or lack of basic job skills.

PET is largely preparation for entry into the labor market. Content of the curriculum consists of completing job applications identifying job openings, developing interviewing techniques, personality development and work adjustment which includes grooming, punctuality, attendance, seeking help, accepting supervision and problem solving. Techniques utilized in PET are group discussions, role playing, simulated interviews, outside speakers and field observations.

The ultimate results of PET are to have participants understand the hiring process from the employer's perspective and to understand realistic job options available to them. Such understanding will facilitate an appropriate and useful job placement for both the participant and the employer.

The program also includes life skills training as part of the educational component. This training complements academic and pre-employment instructions by insuring that participants master necessary skills needed in every day living situations such as:

1. community resources,
2. consumer affairs,
3. government and law,
4. health and safety,
5. occupational knowledge (follow-up to PET),

PLACEMENT AND FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES

The prevailing goal of the program is to provide pre-employment training leading to private sector placements. Unsubsidized employment is achieved through private sector employment.

Overcoming employers' resistance to employment of high school dropouts is a primary objective of the staff. Most employers prefer hiring high school graduates. The specific objectives of private sector placement activities can

eliminate barriers to employments such as:

1. attitudes and values: High school dropouts frequently have poor self-images or distorted work values and an absence of salable skills.

2. lack of job skills: The employer may view lack of skills and exit from high school as evidence that the participant will not perform well on the job.

3. stereotypes of the high school dropout: Considerable resistance to the employment of high school dropouts stems from stereotypes about their motivation, attitudes, and behaviors.

4. transportation: A significant problem for high school dropouts is getting to work. Special arrangements are made and assistance is given to insure that participants transportation needs are met.

Another aspect of the program is that participants are given extensive follow-up services after placement by the staff. Private sector placement activities do not stop after the participant is placed. If the employment situation of the at-risk rural adult is to be stabilized, a system of post-placement activities will serve both the employer and the participant. Survival on the job can be enhanced with post-placement procedures of visiting the job site and working with the participants and their immediate supervisor on problems that exist or may emerge. It is the role of the staff to recognize difficulties encountered on the job and to reverse the negative behavior into positive learning experiences.

Participants who are terminated into training related employment will be eligible to receive ninety (90) days of post-placement services following termination from the program. This will allow participants to remain in educational instruction in order to complete GED preparation.

EMPLOYER PARTICIPATION

The University of Tennessee Education and Training Program is designed to provide supplemental training services and to coordinate job development and placement activities. It is the goal of the program to develop participants to be motivated, dependable, honest, neat and good workers in order to be employed to fill job openings. The staff screens and assesses participants in

order that business, industry, and government in the counties of Anderson, Blount, Campbell, Cumberland, Loudon, Morgan, and Roane can offer employment.

Participants are employed in occupational areas such as building services, construction, health care, hospitality/restaurant, industrial trades, manufacturing/ production, office/clerical, and retail/wholesale. Both staff and employers cooperate together in the placement of participants in a position where they will have the opportunity to be successful in the private sector.

PROGRAM ACCOMPLISHMENTS

A total of 137 participants were enrolled in the four programs as of November 30, 1988 (Table I). Forty-two were enrolled in Blount County, 50 enrolled in Crossville, 29 enrolled in LaFollette and 16 enrolled in Oliver Springs. A total of 45 participants were in basic skills instruction. Ninety-two were enrolled in GED instruction; 32 in Blount County, 37 in Crossville, 15 in LaFollette, and 8 in Oliver Springs. A total of 41 in the four programs attempted the GED test and 36 achieved the competency level.

A total of 54 participants were employed in the seven county area. Most of the participants were placed in the vicinity of the four communities previously mentioned. Employers were generally pleased with the participants performance on the job. As the positive image of the program grows in the business community more successful placements will be made.

The percent of the agreed upon goals by the program director and the funding agency was achieved. Since the four satellite program just began in January 1988, realistic goals were established. Private Industry Council (PIC) and the administration are pleased with the overall success of the multi-phased community program for at-risk rural adults.

TABLE I

BLOUNT COUNTY, CROSSVILLE, LAFOLLETTE, OLIVER SPRINGS
CUMULATIVE PROGRAM ACTIVITY REPORT
JULY TO NOVEMBER, 1988

PROGRAM	TOTAL ENROLLED	BASIC SKILLS	GED	ATTEMPT GED	PASSED GED	PASSING GED	EMPLOYED
Blount County	42	10	32	15	14	93%	25
Crossville	50	13	37	17	16	94%	15
LaFollette	29	14	15	6	4	67%	7
Oliver Springs	16	8	8	3	2	67%	7
TOTAL	137	45	92	41	36	90%	54

Charles C. Coker, Ph.D.,
and
James Costello, M.S.

Research and Training Center
School of Education and Human Services
University of Wisconsin-Stout
Menomonie, WI 54751

THE COMMUNITY TRANSITION CENTER (CTC) MODEL

Introduction

The Community Transition Center (CTC) is a way of conceptualizing and organizing the employment related needs of youth with mild handicaps exiting the secondary public schools. The Model is founded on a number of successful principles in the other projects (D'Alonzo and Owen, 1985) and on those identified in Project ADAPT (Thomas, Coker, and Czerlinsky, 1988) which increased the ability of secondary schools to provide transitioning programs for their mildly handicapped youth. The Model emphasizes the lead role of the secondary school system in initiating transition programming, the need for the school to establish work experience programs, and the establishment of an active network between the secondary school and post-secondary settings to assist students in their transition from school to the community.

The CTC Model is being tested in six different school districts in west-central Wisconsin. There are common transition competencies that need to be addressed for successful transitioning of students, but there are several different ways that school district can organize their program. This program has been targeted toward rural secondary-aged learning disabled and other mildly handicapped students who have been mainstreamed into the general education classes. The program is currently operational in six school districts in West Central Wisconsin. The 1987-88 total enrollment in Grades 9-12 ranges from 178 in Turtle Lake to 650 in New Richmond with the others falling in between: 276 in Elk Mound, 320 in Prescott, 369 in Unity, and 483 in Barron.

The model is organized around a "Center" that can be individually tailored to the needs of a community. Urban or large school districts often can establish such a Center to meet their needs. In rural areas, the community may be a defined geographical area that encompasses several school districts. This allows rural school districts to pool resources to implement the model. The Center may located within a school district, cooperative education service area organization, rehabilitation center, vocational technical school, community college, or any appropriate setting. Though it is recommended that a "Center" exist, it is not necessary if the components of the Community Transition Center can be organized into existing structures.

The objectives of this Training Institute are to:

1) Enhance the ability of the teacher participants to provide employment preparation skills to their handicapped youth in the school and community,

2) Describe the needs of mildly handicapped youth for direct services and programs beyond the school's capacity, and

3) Provide practical techniques for accessing and pooling resources through interagency collaboration among secondary schools, post-secondary educational settings, adult human services providers, and employers.

The next sections describe the foundations of the CTC Model in which the Institute training involved the participants in discussions for developing potential organization schemes and implementing transition techniques.

Model Components

The CTC Model consists of three major components: School-Based Program, CTC Service Capacity, and Networking.

Component I: School-Based Program

One of the CTC 's primary goals is to assist schools to develop effective programs that provide employment preparation for their students. Much of this activity is related to the implementation of a three part Functional Transition Curriculum and the organization to support it. The curriculum consist of three phases that are implemented during the senior year:

Employment Readiness Assessment,

Job Seeking Skills, and

Structured Job Search

The curriculum focuses the teachers' activities on transitional programming in the secondary setting. Assessment procedures, instruments, manuals, and realistic objectives are available from this program. This component of the Model is designed to facilitate the development of those vocational preparation and employment activities that can and should be pursued within the secondary school setting. The curriculum encompasses concepts that are consistent with the requirements of the Job Training Partnership Act's (JTPA) focus on pre-employment (school based) skills and work maturity (employer based) skills. The model program utilizes the concepts of curriculum based functional assessment and offers differ levels of assessment based on the needs of the student and competency of school personnel. A necessary part of this component is a work experience program and active administrative support.

The second aspect of the school based component is the organizational structure to support and coordinate the transition program. School develop internal Local Transition Teams which consist of the key players in the school. In Wisconsin, these players are typically the special education teachers assigned to the different classification of handicaps such as Learning Disabilities (LD), Emotionally Disturbed (ED), and Educable Mental Retardation (EMR); the special education director, local vocational education coordinator (LVEC), and the guidance counselor. Others may be involved depending on the school's organization such as staff provided through relationship with JTPA monies. The foci of the Transition Team are 1) developing, maintaining, monitoring, and revising the schools transition programming and 2) participation in writing and implementing Individual Transition Plans (ITP) for their students. The ITP is important both for the student and the school in order to maintain a focus on the successful entry into the post-secondary goal (employment, vocational training, or education) and having adequate support for the goal. Part of the school's transition programming must include an active involvement of the parents. Finally, the Transition Team needs to address issues within the school regarding:

1) Scheduling a credit class for employment readiness/career training,

2) Organizing the Special Education Staff so that both classroom and community-based transition activities are conducted,

3) Providing adequate release time for teachers to conduct the transition programs including time for at least one teacher to work with the employer and community,

4) Developing work experience, Cooperative Education, and other programs which allow students to be in the community during part of the school day or week,

5) Working out difficult problems in transportation, liability, and parental support,

6) Developing a working relationship with adult service providers in the community, and

7) Maintaining the program when difficulties and barriers occur.

Component 2: CTC Service Capacity

Though secondary schools must be responsible for initiating a transition program, there are limitations to the schools' capacity. The CTC Model offers a way of organizing and conceptualizing the types of additional services that may need to be provided. This component consists of several activities depending on the needs of the individual student, school, and adult service agencies. During the establishment phase of the CTC, the project staff provides direct technical assistance and matching community-based resources with student needs in the following areas:

Comprehensive Vocational Assessments. Vocational exploration and assessment are provided for development of the individual education plan and individual transition plan, as appropriate, using a combination of psychometrics, work samples, and community based situational assessments selected secondary sites and within the community.

Employment Training Skills. Students are trained in social adaptive skills, job keeping/job seeking skills either in the schools and community.

Job Tryouts. Temporary placements in industry are used for allowing the student to gain meaningful experiences and build their resumes, and sometimes lead to full or part-time employment.

On-the-Job Training. These opportunities are arranged through the participating employers in the CTC network.

Thirteenth Year Education for Employment Programs. A combination of employment preparation and educational program are developed on an individual basis for high school graduates with handicaps and are targeted toward providing educational, vocational, and employment preparation training courses to achieve competitive employment. These courses may be given at the University or Vocational School in a combination of credit, non-credit, and continuing education credit courses.

Structured Job Search. The CTC provides direct placement services utilizing a modified job club approach for students leaving secondary or post-secondary schools.

Accessing Post-Secondary Education. The CTC assists students in admissions planning and guidance into vocational education, building trade apprenticeships, and four-year universities in the area.

Counseling. Individual counseling is provided as an important adjunct to the vocational decision-making process and for personal well being.

In addition to working with the schools to provide appropriate programming during the school year, the CTC staff work with the schools and others in the following areas:

Coaching. Educational or job coaching following placement, or in conjunction with placement, will be provided to students as necessary.

Follow-up. Following-up and monitoring of students will be done to determine the need for further services and the effectiveness of programs.

Community Information Resource. The CTC provides information on employment, education, and available services in the area.

Career Development and Re-training. The CTC will be available on a continuous basis to assist those who have needs for career mobility or require training or support services to maintain or regain employment.

Technical Support. Consultation will be provided by the CTC staff to various educational settings and employment settings on services which assist mainstreaming or maintaining the student in post-secondary settings.

These primary elements require the establishment of linkages with other community based programs to obtain needed support services for youth in the secondary setting or at the CTC, work with parents/family, and referral of students to other community based programs.

Component III: The Transition Steering Committee (TSC)

The CTC Model is currently based on working with several schools in a geographical area. A Transition Steering Committee (TSC) was developed as the primary mechanism for bridging between the various community resources, the secondary schools, and the CTC. The TSC serves several functional and advisory roles. Functionally, the TSC assist a variety of students by providing direct services, employment, or education. Informal and formal (cooperative agreements) linkages among employers, educators, and service providers need to be established in to provide access to finite resources in the community or geographical area. In their advisory role, the initial focus of the TSC has been on the CTC and how it best serves the student interests. The advisory role, however, extends beyond the CTC. Employers, parents/family, educators, and others will become active in determining how the various resources should and could be used for the successful transition of handicapped youth in their community.

The Transition Steering Committee includes secondary schools, community based service providers, funding sources for services, other educational and training sources, unions and employers. This network assists in the following areas:

Advisory. The TSC advises the CTC on its organization, programs, and evaluation of impact.

Functional. The TSC provides:
- referrals to the CTC
- funding for various programs within CTC
- funding for services outside the CTC
- transitional support services within their setting
- training, OJT, and education
- employment

The Transition Steering Committee elects its own Chair from the following potential membership representing:

A. Vocational Technical School
B. CESA/Secondary School
C. Division of Vocational Rehabilitation
D. Vocational Rehabilitation Facilities
E. JTPA/PIC Council
F. Employers/Chamber of Commerce
G. Building trades apprenticeship
H. Unions
I. Parent/family or advocates
J. Consumers
H. University

Model Benefits

The model has several benefits. The primary one is that it provides a way to organize and evaluate transition programming among the various key players in the school (special education, vocational education, regular education, pupil services/guidance, and administration), adult service providers, and community resources. Secondly, transitioning needs of students are addressed regardless of requirements for eligibility or certification for services by agencies external to the school. It provides a resource place for students during the critical transition junction - just after leaving school and while adjusting to post-secondary settings. It requires key players in the school and community to become familiar with the needs of the students and operating characteristics of the various players' organization. It is a starting point around which a comprehensive career education and transition programs can be built.

REFERENCES

D'Alonzo, B. J., Owen, S. D. (1985, April). Transition services for the disabled: A national survey. Paper presented at the 63rd Annual Council for Exceptional Children Conference, Anaheim, CA.

Thomas, D. F., Coker, C. C., and Czerlinsky, T. (1988) Project Adapt: A School Based Vocational Preparation Model for Transition from School to Work. Menomonie, WI: University of Wisconsin-Stout, Stout Vocational Rehabilitation Institute, Research and Training Center.

Lee Coose
3450 Gocio Road
Sarasota, FL 34235

HIV/AIDS STUDENTS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Policy Development and Program Implementation

Synopsis

This conference presentation paper addresses one of the most significant issues facing American education today: HIV/AIDS students in the public schools. Essentially, this paper will focus on the development of school board policy and program implementation with respect to providing an appropriate educational environment for the aforementioned students.

Through the actual experience of developing and implementing school board policy, considerations will be presented to members of the audience for practical application in their day to day operations. The primary intent will be to highlight specific pitfalls, which must be acknowledged in order to avoid potential litigation, when developing school board policy and initiating a delivery system of educational programs and related services. This presentation paper has relevance for any public school entity, whether it be rural or urban, in that both policy and program must insure that an individual's basic rights are not violated as set forth by the Constitution and judicial system of the United States.

Introduction

The HIV/AIDS crisis has brought us face to face with complex medical and social challenges unparalleled in this century. The magnitude of this tragic epidemic is measured not only in the cost of human life, but also the enormous financial burdens of health care and lost productivity which each and everyone of us, as well as future generations, will ultimately bear.

Authorities in the field of epidemiology readily concur that there are really two epidemics related to HIV/AIDS: an epidemic of illness and an epidemic of fear. The costs of the epidemic of fear are immeasurable - the destruction of sane and rational behavior - needless, inhumane discrimination - and, often the destruction of relationships and support systems at a time when they are most needed.

The question often arises, "Where do we start?" Needless to say there are many beginnings, but the first immediate action one can take is that "Change Starts With Our Own Attitudes." Fear, anger and the urge to blame are our most common response. Sadly enough, some of our most instinctive attitudes about HIV/AIDS are negative ones; if we don't admit that and work to understand "why and how," such attitudes can control our decisions and behaviors in very destructive ways.

Dr. C. Everett Koop, Surgeon General of the United States, gathered a number of experts to study HIV/AIDS. One of the findings and recommendations contained in the Surgeon General's Report was that education, as an agent of social change, can become a formidable instrument in the prevention of HIV/AIDS. Therefore, the responsibility for providing educational programs 'in toto" now rests with federal, state, and local public education agencies in terms of the preventative aspects as well as those dealing with individuals already possessing the HIV/AIDS infection.

In General Koop's closing remarks to the workshop committee on HIV/AIDS, there were two poignant quotes. "Until we find a vaccine or cure, the only way to stop the spread of AIDS is through education" and, "The public must become comfortable with the knowledge that quarantine is not the answer to preventing the spread of AIDS. Education is."

Realities of Life

Children and families have been driven from their schools and communities by anger, insults, and physical abuse generated through the ignorance and fear of individuals. The discussion of HIV/AIDS remains an unpopular and sensitive issue. As policy is developed and educational programs are implemented, there will be confrontations and difficult situations. To put the issue of HIV/AIDS contagiousness in perspective, the following results from the Harris Poll conducted in April 1988 will perhaps help responsible persons face these difficult encounters in a more calm, confident manner.

- Three to seven percent of all AIDS cases, adults and children, are mysteries. Parents of healthy children point to these unexplained cases as proof that AIDS can be transmitted in unknown ways.

- A more dangerous game is played each time parents take their children for a automobile ride. It is estimated that one out of every 15,000 children will die in a motor vehicle accident.

- Estimates project that a child stands a one in 26,000 chance of acquiring AIDS. Of 500 children infected with the virus, the odds are even more improbable - one in 104,000.

- Based on the statistics and the fact that no children have been infected in a classroom setting, medical authorities, led by the Federal Centers for Disease Control, firmly insist that AIDS is not transmitted by casual contact. It is only spread by intimate sexual contact, contaminated blood products, sharing a intravenous needle or congenitally, from mother to newborn. Since children are not sexually active and most bleeding can be controlled, authorities believe the majority of children with AIDS can attend school with their classmates.

- Some parents and school officials believe the term "casual" more aptly describes the experts' attitude toward the most frightening disease of our time. Subsequently, even though some parents are not opposed to the enrollment of children with AIDS, there is belief that restrictions should be placed on what these students can do and where they go.

- Most parents surveyed (411 nationwide) said they wouldn't be afraid to send their child to a school attended by a student with AIDS or its antibodies.

- Sixty-six percent of the parents indicated they would send their child to school with an aids infected student; 76%, if the student in question had antibodies, but no symptoms.

- Parents were nearly unanimous in their support for AIDS education in the schools.

- Younger parents were more likely than older parents to keep their children home from school if another student had AIDS (26%).

- Parents with very young children were less willing to send them to school (58%) than parents with older children (67%) or parents of teenagers (74%).

- Fifty-six percent of the parents thought schools should be required to reveal the identity of students with AIDS. If a child tested positive for AIDS antibodies, only 41% thought the identity should be revealed.

- Support for the AIDS child's right to a public education cut across political and religious lines. The traditionally known "white moral majority" persons were supportive, with 74% stating they would send their children to school with an AIDS infected student.

- There were parents in some sections of the country who seemed more afraid than others. E.g., 74% of Western state parents would send their children to school with an AIDS infected student. 70% of Midwestern parents said they would send their children and in the Eastern section, 60% of the parents would do so. It may not be that East coast parents are less

tolerant, but that AIDS are more prevalent in larger, urban cities than smaller, rural towns.

- City residents were more likely than their surburban and rural neighbors to keep their children out of school if an AIDS infected student was enrolled. Twenty-seven percent cental city residents stated preference for this type of action as opposed to 19% in the suburbs and 16% in surrounding rural areas.

What does all this mean?

- That AIDS is a reality in the major metro centers of the East Coast where parents might perceive themselves and their children at higher risk.

- The "nearness of threat, the stronger, and closer to home" may reflect action of the more reluctant parent to send their child to school.

- Fifty-six percent of the parents wanted the identity of the AIDS student known, while 54% felt it should be kept confidential. This finding seems to indicate that one might be able to influence the issue of maintaining confidentiality either way.

- Regardless of how parents in the survey felt, they clearly indicated a demand and immediate need for AIDS education in the schools for both teachers and students.

Policy Development

There are several major considerations to take into account when an attempt is made to develop policy. The foremost is a basic premise that any policy, regulation, or procedure must protect the health and welfare of students and staff in the school district. A second basic premise is to protect the rights of privacy, acquisition of an education, and maintenance of employment in a consistent manner. A third is that no policy, regulation, or procedure should be considered flawless, but ought to withstand scrutiny and modification as deemed necessary after a reasonable implementation period.

The following are presented as brief guidelines in the development of an HIV/AIDS policy. These have relevance for the majority of school governing bodies in their role as policy makers.

Know Your Community

This aspect of developing policy is crucial. Do your homework. Study the demographics.

- Occupational endeavors
- Employment outlook
- Economy
- Age ranges by percentage
- Religious profile
- Political profile
- Service organizations
- Organized labor profile (unions)
- Media profile
- Medical profile
- Support group profile
- Law enforcement profile
- Governmental operations
- Parent group profile
- Higher education profile
- Veterans group profile
- Power broker profile
- Student population
- School personnel profile

Network Your Community

As stated previously, the subject of HIV/AIDS is not the most popular topic; especially, in light of the fact that writing school policy suggests the existence of HIV/AIDS students and that consideration might be given to their attending school with healthy children.

Subsequently, one needs to identify out of the community structure those groups which might be more receptive than others with respect to becoming enlighted about the subject of HIV/AIDS. Also, it is important to determine how various groups interact with one another or do not interact. The point here is that one should begin to make inroads by offering information to these groups. The primary objective is to build and enlist a community support base prior to policy development.

Identify Power Structure

Within certain groups, specific individuals will emerge to serve in leadership roles. There will also be those persons who are not as audacious, but tend to influence their peers equally as well within the group. Both types can be cultivated and utilized most effectively in helping one reach the primary objective of writing a policy that is acceptable to the general populous without having to do combat.

Select the Policy Committee

Once the support base of community groups and/or individuals has been generated, one should ask for assistance. There are persons who will serve on the committee to formulate policy. Generally, this committee is large in number and tends to be the linkage factor between the actual policy writers and the community. Also, this large group serves to review the policy and acts as endorsers of the document.

In order to achieve a written policy, an ad hoc subcommittee is selected. This group drafts policy(ies) for large committee review, modification, and final approval before the policy is advertised for school board sanction.

School Board Workshops

An essential ingredient in the process is that of informational workshops for school board members each step of the way. The best written policy can be blocked if one tends to exclude this body early in the developmental stages of the document. The issue is so sensitive and board members hear from all sorts of people; some positive while others may be negative. It is critical that board members thoroughly understand the policy so questions can be answered directly without hesitation. This provides an image to the caller and/or observer that there is a "united front" in support of the policy and its eventual implmentation.

Public Forum

The concept of public forum often causes one to wince as there is exposure to various unknown elements in the audience. However, it is a practice that sets the stage for open communication and permits one to sense the pulse of the citizenry regarding a very controversial issue. One might take heed that a single forum is usually not enough. The very thing one wants to avoid is the impression that a covert process exists in policy approval by the board. One's credibility is on the line, whereby, it is better to be candid and forthright.

Open Communication

The importance of this area cannot be emphasized enough whether it involves student, parent, staff or vested interest group. Most of the information the American public receives comes from newspapers or television. The media plays a significant role in what people believe. Media persons can be one's friend or enemy. It's a choice one has to make. Treat these persons with courtesy and respect. Clear and accurate information for the media to report greatly enhances the image one wishes to project. Ample

opportunity for media personnel to access the provider of information will lend readily to what the populous believes about an HIV/AIDS policy and the implementation of such.

Least Restrictive Environment

As policy is pondered, special attention should be given to what constitutes a "least restrictive environment" for an identified HIV/AIDS student. The policy must address this concern. Many school districts across the United States reflect isolation and quarantine in their policies as a solution to an awesome problem. I.e., a quick fix occurs to declare the student special education material and he/she is placed in a special program or one that provides an educational program via home instruction/telecommunication classes. Several landmark cases, involving extensive litigation, have come before the higher courts of this country related to violation of one's individual rights. The courts, without fail, have ruled on behalf of the HIV/AIDS student and his/her family.

One needs only to review the literature and research about HIV/AIDS transmission. There is an abundance of information indicating that HIV/AIDS is a progressive disease and that, at certain stages, isolation may become necessary. However, until isolation is determined, researchers and medical practitioners believe it is appropriate for infected students to attend school with healthy students. An important core of the HIV/AIDS policy should reflect that enrollment and placement of an infected student with healthy students must be considered on an individual basis. Then too, these cases must be subject to periodic review by a team of professionals having knowledge of student need and condition throughout various phases of school life.

SUMMARY

It is one task to develop policy; it is another to successfully implement. The most important factor is to have a well thought out policy in place before the issue of an HIV/AIDS student and his/her education arises.

Our experience within local school system in dealing with the HIV/AIDS student (s) proves it can be accomplished effectively and successfully. There is no measure of time in terms of preparation, only that it is better to extend oneself with regard to preparation than to attempt and band-aid solution. The total community and the school community must be afforded both patience and tolerance until such time irrational fears diminish. When these two factions begin to understand and discuss the humane aspects of educating the HIV/AIDS individual(s), then it is appropriate to proceed in the laborious phases of

policy development and program implementation.

Caution is issued to those districts choosing a quick solution to a sensitive issue, for there is none. The solution must be genuine, long-term, and comprehensive. School districts, automatically diagnosing the HIV/AIDS student as special education material and further, placing these unfortunate individuals in special education classs or homebound instruction programs, invite litigation. Isolation and quarantine tactics smack of violating the HIV/AIDS student's rights. It would be feasible for a district to identify appropriate educational programs, locations, and related services in terms of comprehensive planning.

Each HIV/AIDS case must be considered on an individual basis. A review panel composed of professional persons familiar with both the medical and educational needs of the infected student should convene routinely to chart progress or lack of it. Modifications and adjustments are certainly expected through out the span of time a district provides for the HIV/AIDS student.

Through determination, concern, and caring, professional education can rise to the forefront to deter this dreaded disease. It can be done!

RESOURCES

1. Alyson, Sasha. (1988). You Can Do something About AIDS. Stop AIDS Project. First Edition. 6 - 126.

2. C. Everett Koop. Surgeon General' Report On Acquired Immune Deficiency System (Washington, D.C., Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1986.

3. Meade, Jeff. (1988). What Parents Should Know When AIDS Comes to School. Children Magazine. 59(7). 59 - 65.

4. The School Board of Sarasota County, Florida, Workshop Bulletins. September 1987 and February 1988.

Ace Cossairt, Ph.D.
Area of Special Education
Box 3374 University Station
University of Wyoming
Laramie, Wyoming 82071

THE EFFECTS OF A PRINCIPAL'S "SUPERVISION PACKAGE" ON TEACHER AND STUDENT BEHAVIORS AND A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE AS A CHANGE AGENT

The systematic use of instructions, modeling, feedback and contingent praise was employed by a school principal to increase teacher praise and positive feedback for student-attending and instruction-following behavior in four elementary school classrooms. The specific behaviors measured included: (1) the principal's verbal interactions with the four teachers; (2) the teacher's verbal comments; and (3) the student behaviors which consisted of (a) instruction-following, (b) attending behaviors, and (c) number of math problems worked correctly. The principal's supervision package (instructions, modeling, feedback and contingent praise) was applied in a multiple-baseline design with teachers A, B, C, and D. Behaviors of the principal, the four teachers and the 16 target students were measured continually and recorded throughout the study.

With the introduction of the principal's "supervision package," each teacher initiated or increased the number of praise or positive feedback statements to the students. (See Figure 1.) The teachers' praise and positive feedback statements continued at higher levels after the introduction of the principal's "supervision package," though the principal revisited the classrooms only intermittently to provide praise and positive feedback to the teachers.

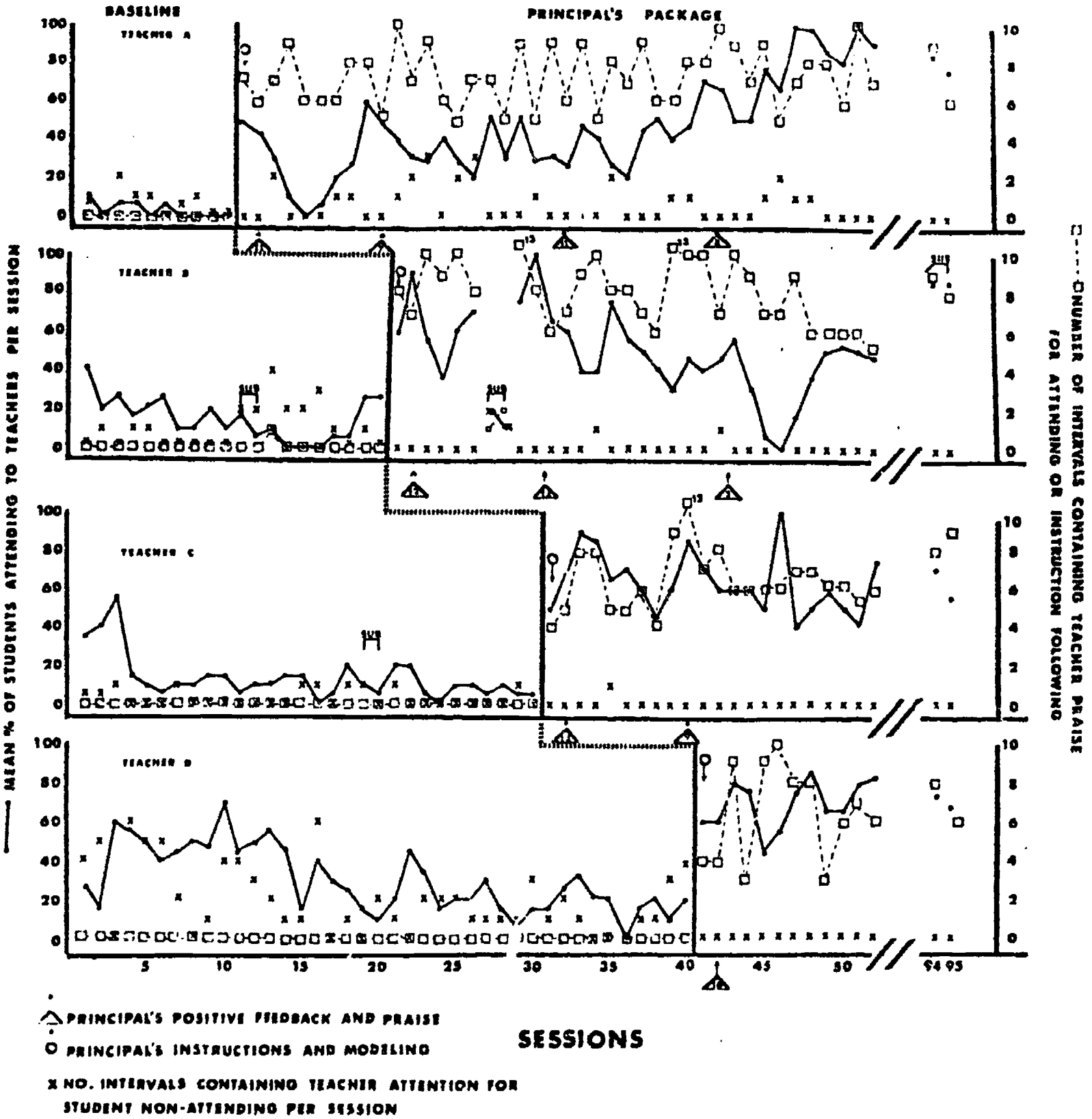
The introduction of the principal's "supervision package" and the coinciding increased rate of teacher praise effected a dramatic increase in the target students' attending behavior over baseline conditions.

A major challenge confronting school administrators at every level of education is how to improve the quality of teaching. This study demonstrated that a principal can effect changes in teacher behavior which in turn affects student behaviors in their classroom. This study may be a first step in finding a method to aid teachers in altering their behaviors so that they may become maximally effective in their classrooms.

A Historical Perspective of the Change Agent Role of the School Principal

The primary purpose of this manuscript is to provide an account of the procedures and results of an experiment that

FIGURE 1



Graphic Record of the Behavior of Teachers A, B, C, and D; the Mean Percent of Students Attending to Teachers Per Session; and the Number of Principal Praise and Feedback Statements during Baseline when no experimental conditions were in effect and during the Principal's Package conditions when instructions, modeling, feedback and praise of teacher praise were provided by the principal.

utilized principal applied contingencies to modify educational setting behaviors. Information on the evolution of the role of the principal and a characterization of the traditional principal is incorporated in this paper to provide a historical perspective on the evolving status of the principalship. A suggested strategy for modifying the role of the principal is presented along with comments on the direction future research should take regarding principal applied contingencies.

In the middle sixties as federal funds became more available to schools for innovation and experimentation, principals sought and received a greater share of education decision making (Eaves, 1969). Many decisions formerly dictated by the central office became the responsibility of the school principals. With these increased responsibilities, the present day principal occupies a key position in the public school system. Principals historically have had very good access to members of the public education hierarchy. Not only do principals personally interact with teachers, they have opportunities for behavioral contacts with people at every level of the educational structure from the pupil-parent level to the superintendent-school board level. Logically the principal, using appropriate behavior techniques, has the ability to effect change at every level of public education. Yet while the principal's position appears to be a very important one, only recently has the principal's role become an object of careful study. Despite the apparent potential of examining the systematic use of principal-applied contingencies, few studies and little scientific data are presently available in this area.

The Historical Role of the School Principal

An effective characterization of the traditional role of the principal can best be facilitated by a brief review of the historical growth and development of the school principalship delineating various educators' perspectives. Early in the twentieth century Crouch (1926) classified the evolutionary stages of the principalship as follows:

Stage	Chief Duty
1. One teacher	Teaching
2. Head teacher	Teaching
3. Building principal (part time)	Teaching
4. Building principal (part time)	Administration
5. Supervising principal	Supervising

Cooper (1967) determined that the elementary principal's daily tasks included the following: (1) administration, (2) supervision, (3) teaching, (4) clerical duties and (5) community relations. It is interesting to note that Cooper placed administration above supervision and first on the list of duties. As early as 1913 McMurray (1913) indicated that although principals greatly desired to identify themselves with

instruction, they found it impossible to do so because of more pressing tangible administrative tasks. The efficiency of the principal, McMurray asserted, was most likely to be judged by his superiors primarily on the accuracy of reports and promptness of his execution of directives from the central school administrative office.

It is Beck's (1967) conviction that the major characteristic of an effective principal is a high degree of interpersonal skills. A former principal, Beck goes on to say:

> "At the risk of offending some colleagues, it is submitted that almost any adult with normal intelligence could quite rapidly learn the mechanical or technical aspects of the principal's job. Such chores as drawing up schedules, executing local and state reports, budget accounting, ad nauseum, are relatively standardized procedures. Once learned, they offer little in the way of unique challenge." page 79

Substantial numbers of principals undoubtedly concur with Beck's premise that "human engineering" is the most critical aspect of the principal's role.

A National Education Association Survey (1968) showed that reporting principals felt that 82 percent of the principal's time should be devoted to supervision and improvement of instruction. The same survey revealed fully 69 percent of the principals responding failed to devote a minimum of 40 percent of their time to supervision. Supervision was defined as those activities pursued by the principal which are directly related to the improvement of teaching. It seems evident that the principals contacted in this survey felt that supervision was of highest priority in their hierarchy of duties. But as McMurray (1913) and a N.E.A. survey (1968) point out, the problem of competing responsibilities may provide excuses for not supervising or for reducing the principal's effectiveness in the area of positive supervision.

As is too often the case, an inordinate amount of time, effort and energy is expended in discussion the "problems" with lesser attention to solutions. Because much of the traditional literature on the principals role tends to cloud the issue by focusing on the conflicts between administrative and supervision time expenditures, a relevant discussion of the day to day specifics of the principal's interactions is necessary to facilitate implementation of any new approach.

A realistic appraisal of a principal's day would show that much of his interpersonal activities involve dealing with inappropriate student behaviors. This is evidenced by somber students seated adjacent to the school office waiting to "see" the principal for disciplinary purposes. The punitive

authoritarian relationship between the principal and students has been a longstanding tradition in education (Jerrems, 1968).

A principal's aversive problem-oriented contacts are not solely confined to students. Inappropriate behaviors of teachers, parents, teacher aides and secretaries usually require personal action by the principal. Like it or not, the principal who is constantly paired with these aversive situations may become a "conditioned" punisher to be escaped from or avoided. Conceivably a principal with a background in applied behavior analysis would be able to change his role from primarily being an agent of punishment for inappropriate behaviors to one associated with positive reinforcement for appropriate behaviors.

Ostensibly the principal's basic patterns of behavior must be changed to effectively break from the punitive approach that was used by some principals in the past. Even today some principals continue to follow this mode of operation. Daw and Gage (1967) carried out a study that provided evidence that a principal's professional behavior can be modified utilizing teacher feedback. The principal's behavior ostensibly is influenced not only by his present environment, but also by his reinforcement history which includes the traditional authoritarian models he was probably exposed to as a student and as a teacher. A plausible step in changing the traditional role of the principal would be to analyze empirical studies showing just how principals can effect behavioral changes in their respective settings. Also called for is further research in principal applied contingencies, which effect positive changes in teacher and student behaviors.

REFERENCES

Beck, W. R. The teachers and the principal. In Saxe, R. W., Perspectives on the Changing Role of the Principal. Charles C. Thomas Co., Springfield, Illinois, 1968, 79.

Cooper, J.E. Elementary School Principalship. Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., Columbus, Ohio, 1967, 2.

Crouch, R.A. Status of the elementary school principal, Fifth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, Washington, D.C., Vol. V, July, 1926, 208.

Daw, R.W. and Gage, N.L. Effects of feedback from teachers to principals. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1967, 58, 181-190.

Eaves, R.W. Elementary school principalship since 1950, some observations. National Elementary Principal, 1969, 48, 2-4.

Jerrems, R.L. The principal and the pupils. In Saxe, R.W., Perspectives on the Changing Role of the Principal. Charles C. Thomas Company, Springfield, Illinois, 1968, 23.

McMurr , F.M. Elementary School Standards. World Company, Yonkers-on-the-Hudson, New York, 1913, 186.

N.E.A. Status Study of the Elementary School Principal. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1969.

W. N. (Skeet) Creekmore III, Ph.D
Deborah Johnson, M.Ed
Patricia Knesel, M.Ed
John B. Nash, M.Ed
239 Strauss Hall
College of Education
Northeast Louisiana Univeristy
Monroe, LA 71209
(318) 342-4152

Dependence to Independence: Vocational Success through Ecological Congruence

Competitive employment for individuals with developmental disabilities is the ultimate goal in defining vocational success. Often times, however, placement occurs at the sheltered workshop level and not at the competitive level resulting in the placement of a competent worker in a more restrictive vocational environment (Whitehead, Marrone, 1986). Leading to this point are the critical activities of vocational assessment. Historically, vocational evaluations have contained psychological assessments, work sample evaluations, and other norm referenced instruments which collect client-driven data in the *artificial* atmosphere of the sheltered workshop or assessment unit. This practice is considered *static* in that the information collected has only general applications to work-specific situations and fails, in many cases, to tap the skill areas of importance in the exceptional individual (Rusch, 1986). In order to assure accurate proactive vocational assessment, the evaluator must identify the *dynamic* skills necessary for job success. Professionals should consider the full range of skills and deficiencies possessed by the individual before making decisions relative to vocational job exposure and placement (Whitehead, Marrone, 1986).

While moves have been made to define and explain vocational evaluation, Wehman, et. al, (1988) contend that special educators, rehabilitation counselors, and vocational evaluators have low vocational expectations for persons with developmental disabilities. These expectations are shaped by a tradition of under-placement of the exceptional person in the job market as well as a historical focus on pre-vocational training programs and techniques which worked poorly. Miller and Schloss (1982) note that in the past, educators have relied heavily on standardized assessment

instruments that generally summarize the student's vocational capability through a single number or series of numbers, such as IQ, without identifying aspects of an individual's intellect that may demonstrate strengths or weaknesses. "A major problem with earlier employment training programs for persons with mental retardation had been inadequate attention to training strategies with produce maintenance and generalization of trained behaviors (Szymanski, Maxwell, Hansen, Myers, 1988)." Additionally, past effort focused on a developmental approach to vocational training in which the trainee was thought to have required pre-vocational *lock-step* prerequisite skills (extremely time consuming and profitless, for the most part) rather than focusing on a *functional* methodology which is skill-specific.

It is the authors' contention that vocational assessment and training should address the match between the essential skills necessary to complete a job and the skills possessed by the individual to fulfill the requirements. In essence, by identifying viable job sites based on a match between the (1) skill requirements necessary to perform the specific job and (2) the skill repertoire of the worker, problems with maintenance and generalization are greatly reduced; thus the notion of *ecological congruence* and *worker-workskills matching.*

By definition the concept of ecological congruence allows for a match between the demands of the environments and the capabilities of the worker. By conducting vocational assessments through which there is a focused attempt to identify present-level-of-functioning in specific skill domains of a consumer, while at the same time collecting information relative to the specific skills required to successfully perform a job, the evaluator can identify suitable matches between an employable consumer and a potential placement.

For example, a job that requires that an individual be able to read is not ecologically congruent with illiterate individuals. However, a non-reader that possesses good upper body strength may be a good match for work that requires lifting but no reading.

It is necessary to establish ecological congruence in order to have an employee who is satisfied on the job and an employer who is satisfied with the employee. With an understanding of ecological congruence the challenge becomes one of making an effective match possible. The logical source of such a match, it seems, should be accomplished through existing assessment instruments. Although there are many vocational assessment devices on the market which make such claims, most users find that they fall short of the goal

and often prove unreliable or unusable, especially when evaluating individuals with more severe disabilities.

Ideally, evaluators want to be able to evaluate quickly, accurately, cheaply, with available personnel, and obtain reliable data. Most instrument on the market fall short of these criteria. The Workskills Vocational Assessment, Training, and Transition Matrixe (Creekmore), heretofore known as *Workskills,* satisfies these needs.

The purpose of *Workskills* is to match the worker to the position or positions he is most suited to fill, thus increasing the chances for a higher success rate on the job. *Workskills* is a criterion referenced assessment device which evaluates an individual's vocational abilities and targets strengths and weaknesses of those abilities. At the time of evaluation, weaker skills are targeted and determinations are made regarding the feasibility of remediating weak areas or identifying and providing compensatory techniques for the weaknesses.

Workskills is designed to assuage the identification of specific skills of a person with special needs. This assessment contains six subtests encompassing skill domains such as; gross and fine motor, flexibility and coordination, physical endurance, vision and hearing, communication, situational reasoning, as well as cognitive and academic skills. The integrative ability of *Workskills* allows the functional attributes of the individual to be identified as 1) existing skills, 2) targeted skills, or 3) compensatory skills. It also provides an affinity between vocational skills possessed by the consumer and specific requirements of a task or job. A simple example might be that of identifying the level at which a consumer's manipulation of objects using pincer grasp in both hands equates with possible vocational placement where turning knobs was a necessary performance.

Just as it is critical that we carry out an accurate assessment of the consumer, it is quite necessary that we do the same for the vocational community into which this individual will, hopefully, be placed. Community mapping serves this purpose. Community mapping is a task carried out by a job developer. It involves locating potential job sites for consumers in the area. The job developer must possess skills such as marketing, sales management, public relations, knowledge of community agencies, as well as knowledge of consumer training.

Moon, Goodall, Barcus, and Brooke (1986) provide guidelines for a community job market screening. They include use of the local chamber of commerce, screening newspaper classifieds, looking at

job trends in the area that have involved citizens with handicaps, as well as being aware of any requirements needed for a particular job.

Targeted employers are contacted first by phone or personal visit, followed by a visit to the possible job site, If the potential employer remains amiable to employing a consumer. At this point a Master-in-Industry is identified and a Skill Analysis and Real-Time Survey (SARTS) is conducted.

The purpose of skill analysis is to break down a task into its component parts in order to train that task to an individual. A real-time survey is used to gauge the balance between the time to complete the task and the quality of work performed. Some consumers may complete all tasks in a job but perform slowly. Others may work very quickly, but miss steps or become careless. The real time survey provides a standard from which production rate and pay scales can be made. They also provide time and quality goals from which a vocational curriculum can be based. Both real time surveys and skill analyses are completed by observing a competent person perform the particular task in question and recording each step in sequential order.

The process of collecting data may vary among researchers. We have adopted a method that uses a micro-cassette recorder and a master in industry. A Master-in-Industry is an individual that has been identified by the employer in the work setting as a competent worker. One whose standard of work in both quality and quantity is judged as competent. Once this person is identified, he or she is observed completing the tasks to be analyzed by the researcher. By orally identifying component parts of the task into the micro cassette recorder, a researcher can create a real-time file of the job. Later, he or she runs the tape with a stopwatch and records the time taken for each component step. This becomes the real-time survey. It includes the motions involved in completing each step, and the length of time for each. From this document, one then creates the skill analysis. This skill analysis, essentially the requisite skills of the job, is then compared to the skills possessed by the consumer. These have already been identified through *Workskills* . Information collected at the field sites in the form of skill analyses are scrutinized with regard to the skill domains listed on the matrix. Required skill levels are transferred to the appropriate matrix line. A skill matrix completed for the job profile is then compared directly to a matrix completed for the consumer profile. A high percentage match is sought between the individuals ability and the requirements for the job.

For the purpose of integrating these data into the structure of most public school systems, in the eighth grade the IEP will become an IVP (Individualized Vocational Program) that addresses the unique vocational needs of the student. The team will do detailed long range planning and using the *Workskills* assessment, develop a set of long term vocational goals for the student. One result of the *Workskills* evaluation is the Nova Targets. Nova Targets are the perceived strengths and weaknesses of a client. These will be used to develop an applied curriculum that will enhance the capabilities of each individual.

The curriculum will address the unique variables of each individual by building on existing strengths and looking at each weakness closely to determine if remediation or compensation is the best approach. The functional curriculum will use this information to build as diverse and student-enhancing a program as possible. Thus the student is developing life enhancing skills that will lead to meaningful independence at work and in his private life

To this point emphasis has been placed on the collection of data and the use of those data in the preparation of a "plan" for the integration of the consumer into the world of work. Focus should now be placed on the actual methodology for the facilitation of that plan. Concentric Transition is a technique which draws on the practice of skill.focused integration into responsible vocational environments. By this we mean that, just as was the case for you and I, exposure to work and the variety of responsibilities associated with it was gradual, so also should be the introduction of these same variables and responsibilities to a person with special needs. A discussion of the three basic types of concentric transition will follow.

Concentric Transition: Public School Scheme

Traditional techniques for the juxtaposition of exceptional secondary level students who are involved in special education programs have lacked sophistication and desired effectiveness in many cases because of the lack of data based placement decisions. These "vocational experience" practices give the student unrealistic and artificial perceptions about work and are in many cases linked to production without pay scenerios which are less than reinforcing or realistic to the consumer desiring to enter the world of work. After all, the driving force for work is none other that the almighty dollar.

The technique suggested by the authors is that a plan of "Concentric Exposure" be implemented using job coaching support.

These job coaches are the teacher, custodian, cafeteria worker, etc. (referred to earlier as Masters in Industry) who are already well versed in the jobs that they do. By using this first exposure strategy, the staff of the school assume some ownership for the success of the individual as well as getting help on their respective responsibilities. Using this procedure the classroom is the first site of training in which periods of the day would be designated as "Work sets". During these times, the room is transformed into an industry site in which the student is required to clock in, do piece-rate work (which can be procured from local churches, welfare office, chamber of commerce, or the central office) and actually take breaks. The job coach in this instance is the classroom teacher.

The first exposure vocationally bound adolescents should take place early on in their secondary career accompanied by the shift in focus from IEP curriculum formatting to that of an IVP which specifically emphasizes job-specific types of skills. Movement from the relatively cloistered classroom site to the next level, that of an in-building and on-campus work station with one of the above mentioned Masters in Industry should occur when the consumer has demonstrated the necessary skills to support that type of move. Moves made too early threaten the integrity of your relationship with the Master since it tends to overburden him with teaching attending and perseverance skills which are not his/her perview. Placement at this level beyond the time when a consumer (student) is excited about and prepared for the placement brings with it the possibility of loss of interest, boredom and suspicion since you have communicated to him/her that the move would be made just as soon as he/she was prepared and willing to work.

The key to successful experiences at this level is monitoring and iconic instruction with payoff. By this we mean that the student should be molded into the job carefully and completely so that no misunderstanding takes place. "Failure free training" necessitates that the consumer has all that he/she needs to know in order to respond to situations. Associated with this is a strong behavior management plan which capitalizes on the positive performance of the consumer and is delivered in a timely fashion.

The students can be placed in an array of work sites with a variety of Masters on his campus with data being collected along the way used to make the next placement decisions. Movement from this campus to another campus for portions of the day can also be folded into the IVP if logical for that consumer. "Vocational Loaning" to a sister school allows for generalization of skills and the acquisition of pride and confidence that "I can do this in other places too."

It is necessary to see how well the consumers work in isolation, with small crews and with large ones. For this reason, somewhere within the concentric transition plan, the individual consumer should be given an opportunity to work in mobile work crews, enclaves and by him/herself. Data from these experiences will help paint the complete vocational picture of the student.

Movement from the school campuses to the community is a big step which can be handled with relative ease in a mobile work crew format. Cooperative agreements with local city recreation and parks departments to maintain softball fields, basketball courts and the like would allow the consumers in a school program to integrate into the community using the job coaching plan. This integration will "grease the skids" for many consumers into actual job possibilities of a permanent nature in their communities. Exposure to jobs without leaving campus or exposure just for exposure's sake is far less effective than a plan based on vocational performance data collected over a period of time in an array of job settings and through conversation with the consumer.

The logical extension to this type of concentric transition model is the permanent placement of the consumer into competitive employment at the optimum time in his life. The suggestion is made that a consumer conceivably could be prepared for competitive employment well before he ages out of the school systems service ages (age 21) and should be working when that occurs.

Sheltered Workshop Conversion

A national trend developing looks at modifying and expanding the array of vocational training options and procedures to include on-site vocational training rather than the traditional isolated in-house pre-vocational skill building practiced for so many years. Through the use of concentric transitioning, the consumer can be gradually introduced to the less restrictive atmosphere of work in success chunks, the technique, addressed in detail in other writings allows the consumer to avail him/herself of the array of work opportunities in the community with the support of job coaches and master's in industry prior to being released to "sink or swim" vocationally speaking. The steps explained above would be followed in this set of instances as well; the only difference being the actual age of most consumers being somewhat older in the sheltered workshop environment.

Caution must be taken to make vocational decisions which are data-driven to avoid failure of unnecessary stress, and inappropriate not positive vocational experiences for the consumer. Negative

behavioral histories erode motivation, positive vocational risk taking on the part of the consumer and confidence, a commodity often lacking in our clients.

Within Competitive Employment

Using the model described allows the consumer not only to receive accurate vocational experience while he/she are still in the public school setting or the sheltered workshop environment but also can be easily applied in the real work world. Through the application of this technique, data based decisions can be made with stress-light moves made from one job classification or station to another. This lateral movement is quite common in non-handicapped workers within the world of work and should be also for workers with special needs. By allowing for skill-common moves to be made (other work stations or jobs which require essentially the same skills but in a different array) within the company, the consumer learns a variety of jobs and by so doing becomes a more valuable employee to the manager or supervisor. Vertical progress can be facilitated in much the same way with decisions being made based on worker interest and work history indicating that he/she is capable of handling the responsibilities and skills at the next level. These are very normal job move variables with which we all must deal in order to progress in our chosen job types. It is inaccurate to assume that a person with special needs desires to be a fry cook all of his/her life. We don't, why should they? And a vehicle would be provided to allow for that progress within a plan of habilitation.

We have attempted to briefly discuss an evaluation, curriculum and service array which is both functional, practical and exciting. Through the use of skill specific assessment procedures, training specific curricula and vocational placement methodology which closely approximate that of a normal individual, possibility for vocational success should be enhanced.

REFERENCES

Creekmore, W.N. Workskills Vocational Assessment and Curriculum Matrix (1989). Northeast Louisiana University, Monroe, Louisiana

Miller, S., Schloss, P. (1982). Career-vocational education for handicapped youth. Rockville, Md., London: Aspen Systems Corporation.

Moon, S., Goodall, P., Barcus, M., Brooke, V. (Eds). (1986). The supported work model of competitive employment for citizens with severe handicaps: A guide for job trainers. Richmond: Virginia Commonwealth University

Rusch, F. (1986). Competitive employment issues and strategies. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.

Syzmanski, E., Maxwell, C., Hansen, G., Myers, W. (1988). Work adjustment training, supported employment, and time-limited transitional employment programs: Context and common principles. Vocational Evaluation and Work Adjustment Bulletin, 21, 41-46.

Wehman, P., Moon, S., Everson, J., Wood, W., Barcus, J. (1988). Transition from school to work. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.

Whitehead, C., Marrone, J. (1986). Time-limited evaluation and training. In W. Kiernan and J Stark (Eds.), Pathways to employment for adults with developmental disabilities (pp. 163-176). Baltimore: Paul H. Bookes.

W.N. (Skeet) Creekmore III, Ph.D.
Deborah Johnson, M.Ed.
Patricia Knesel, M,Ed.
John B. Nash, M.Ed.
239 Strauss Hall
College of Education
Northeast Louisiana University
Monroe, Louisiana 71209
(318) 342-4152

Digital-First Approach to Teaching Temporal Concepts To Preschool Exceptional Children

In today's society it is important that the skill of time-telling be taught at an early age. It is equally important that this time-telling skill be introduced at the appropriate developmental age to the students. Researchers have indicated that young children are not cognitively prepared to functionally attain time-telling skills until they have established the developmental notions of object permanence and reversibility, occurring at about six to seven years of age(Creekmore, 1981).

Historically, time-telling skills have been taught at the second grade level after these developmental milestones have been attained by most children. Not only are educators responsible for teaching this very important skill to normal children, but they also have the added challenge of teaching time-telling skills to special needs learners.

This presentation reviews traditional analog time-telling instructional procedures as well as introduce a unique and developmentally sound "applications first" technique utilizing a digital time-telling paradigm.

TRADITIONAL TIME-TELLING TECHNIQUES:

Parents and educators have complained of the complexity of teaching traditional time-telling skills to children. The complaints are focused on the difficulties in teaching abstract numerical concepts, recognizing passage of time, and applying the unique usage of numerals (depicting passage of time rather than identifying the number of objects in a set). Teachers must realize that the developmental variables of short-term memory, understanding abstract concepts, and the desire and need to learn time-telling skills on the part of the individual students will greatly influence and accelerate the rate of learning(Johnson, 1979).

Reisman (1971), an educator, has indicated that if all developmental prerequisites are intact, a child must learn a series of 54 desired steps in order to tell time to the minute. Because many normal, learning disabled and mildly mentally handicapped children do not have the prerequisite skills needed to accomplish these tasks, frustration and failure often occur.

Traditional time-teaching strategies such as utilization of the sundial, one-handed clocks, and minute clocks (Thompson,Van de Walle, 1981) prove to be complex and difficult for many children to comprehend. Children with spatial orientation problems are overwhelmed by these complicated and detailed techniques.

Likewise, Nelson (1982) presented a method of teaching time-telling using a seven-step sequence. The areas of time-telling skills and the concept of time were used to establish the need for students to acquire these skills. These methods also proved to be equally confusing for students.

According to Reisman, traditional time-telling

> "...involves the ability to return to a beginning point and to recreate the paths that the hands have traversed. Second since children learn to count by ones first, and since counting by ones is the basis for telling time to the minute, this skill should be taught first rather than last in the time-telling sequence." (Reisman, 1971, p. 152).

All of the traditional methods utilize concrete approaches to teach a set of abstract concepts which we call "TIME". These approaches all contain common elements of concrete objects and analog timepieces. The development of these methods was based on the reality that the analog clock was the only accurate time telling mechanism available. With rapid developments in electronics, this is no longer true. The digital timepiece has evolved making methods for telling time much easier.

The authors have attempted to review literature on time-telling methods and have found traditional teaching techniques less than efficient. It is our belief that many of the difficulties and frustrations accompanying traditional strategies of teaching time-telling skills can be eliminated through the use of an alternate method which utilizes the digital timepiece exclusively. Because the APPLIED DIGITAL METHOD possesses the components of simplicity and direct utility, it could possibly be the most desirable method to use for time-telling instruction.

HIGH-TECH TIME-TELLING:

Teachers are aware that the face of an analog clock is "busy" containing numerals which have no utility for the students unless they are the ones to which the hour and minute hands point specifically. At any given time, these unnecessary numerals can be considered nothing but "distractors" or "confusers". In looking at the standard digital timepiece, the teacher is aware that the face contains only those numerals which are required to determine the exact time. In addition, the digital clock tells time dynamically, through the use of the flashing colon. This element must be inferred with the analog clock, unless it has a second hand.

In working with slow learners, learning disabled and students with significant cognitive deficits, "clean" versus distracting clock faces should prove to be a very important element in instruction due to the distractibility, ocular confusion, and perceptual problems found in many special needs learners.

As is the case in teaching students to use the analog clock, students must have prerequisite skills in order to be successful in using the digital clock. Recognition of numerals, numeral calling skills (one through 12 on the hour side and one through 59 on the minute side), identification of the letters "A" and "P" and their meaning in the time-telling context, are all that are required as prerequisite skills for students to be able to use the digital clock.

Given the strengths and weaknesses of both time-telling mechanisms, it would seem that the digital timepiece may be the instrument of choice for teaching basic time-telling skills to lower elementary regular and special needs students.

APPLIED DIGITAL METHOD
HOW?

Continuing to slaughter the "sacred calf", a time-telling curriculum should be taught throughout the day rather than at discrete times (just once in the morning, three days a week). The APPLIED DIGITAL METHOD requires that the teacher shift the responsibility for performing certain in-class specific duties from her to the students.

Within the classroom scheduling there are certain time-specific responsibilities which fall only within the perview of the teacher. Activities such as calling roll and completing lunch and absentee reports would be categorized as "administrative-specific" tasks. The second block of time related to behavior is classified as "instruction-specific". This would include the actual time allotted

for reading, math, handwriting etc. These too, are the responsibility of the teacher.

The third segment of the day could be considered "fresh meat" for time-telling applications. This can be considered the "student-specific" block of time-related behaviors which would be those segments of the day that directly effect students in non-academic ways. Some examples might include recess, lunch period, and end-of-the-day activities.

The APPLIED DIGITAL METHOD incorporates the use of a simple digital clock (one that includes hour and minute numerals only) and static cardboard replicas of digital clocks and murals depicting specific school day related activities.

METHOD:

In this technique the teacher assembles a time-sequenced array of graphic cartoon murals depicting key segments of her administrative, instructional, or student-specific day.

FIGURE OF MURAL ABOUT HERE

These murals are displayed in a location in the room easily visible to all students. A logical place would be directly above the chalkboard

---

PICTURE OF CLASSROOM ABOUT HERE

TIME-TELLING SEQUENCE SUB-STEPS:

1. The teacher will guide the students in developing an awareness of numerals on a digital clock as compared to the actual time of day. This can be done by presenting several different digital timepieces with different times displayed, or by simply changing the time on the digital clocks themselves. Then individual students can be selected to call the numerals aloud.
2. The teacher will than introduce the murals to the class by discussing each time-related activity depicted.
3. The teacher will set a kitchen timer. When it alarms, the students will be directed to the digital clock and the appropriate mural. For example; if the class begins at 8:00 and the time on the next mural changes at 8:30, then the teacher will set the timer for 30 minutes.
4. The teacher will ask, "What time is it?" The students will response verbally.

5. The teacher will ask, "What do we do now?" The students will respond verbally.

6. The teacher will immediately initiate the activity scheduled. This is to establish a one-to-one correspondence between the activity and the time.

7. After completion of the activity, the teacher should cover that segment of the mural. This gesture demonstrates the passage of time to the students in a very graphic way.

8. Proceed through the day using the steps indicated above.

In each case, the teacher will reset the timer to correspond with the next mural and inform the children verbally that it is time to refer to the clock and murals once again.

As the class begins to learn to tell time accurately, the responsibility for activities such as setting the timer, covering the murals, and initiating the specific behaviors can be assigned to rows of children or individuals. As the students learn the time of the day, the murals are removed so that they do not become an unnecessary crutch.

TEACHING GENERALIZATIONS:

Through the use of the APPLiED DIGITAL METHOD, specific skills in time-telling can be easily acquired by both normal and special needs learners. In addition, the technique enhances an understanding of time sequencing, time-related individual independence on the part of the student, motivation for expanding and refining time-telling skills (including the use of the analog timepiece), self-confidence, improved skills in isolated numeral and combined numeral recognition, and internal locus-of-control(Creekmore and Creekmore, 1982).

CONCLUSIONS:

In a limited review of the traditional time-telling literature it has been demonstrated that this method is replete with contradictions or weaknesses in teaching time-telling to young children and special needs learners. The authors have proposed an alternative method which uses concrete instructional techniques, mural formats (which depict critical portions of the students' day, for which time-related actions are essential), and smooth generalizations to the real world. This technique requires students only to learn basic numeral recognition skills in order to become efficient and effective time tellers.

REFERENCES

Creekmore, W.N. (1981), Add-Card math strategy for the learning disabled, Academic Therapy, 17,(2).

Creekmore, W.N. and Creekmore N.N. (1982), Locus-of-Control: A variable in successful mainstreaming of handicapped students, American Middle School Education, 5, (1).

Johnson, Stanley W. (1979), Arithmetic and Learning Disabilities: Guidelines for Identification and Remediation, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc

Nelson, Glen (1982), Teaching time-telling, Arithmetic Teacher, 29,(9), 31-34.

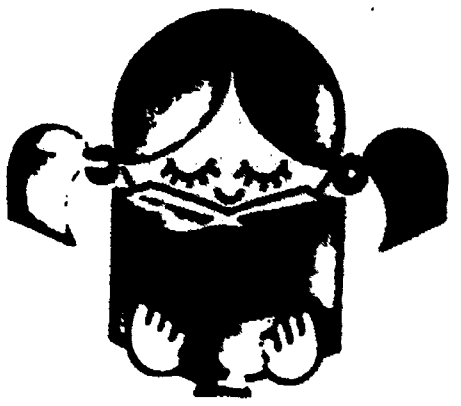
Reisman, Fredrick K. (1971), Children's errors in telling time and a recommended teaching sequence. Arithmetic Teacher, 28, (8), 4-9..

8:15 =



Classroom

9:30 =

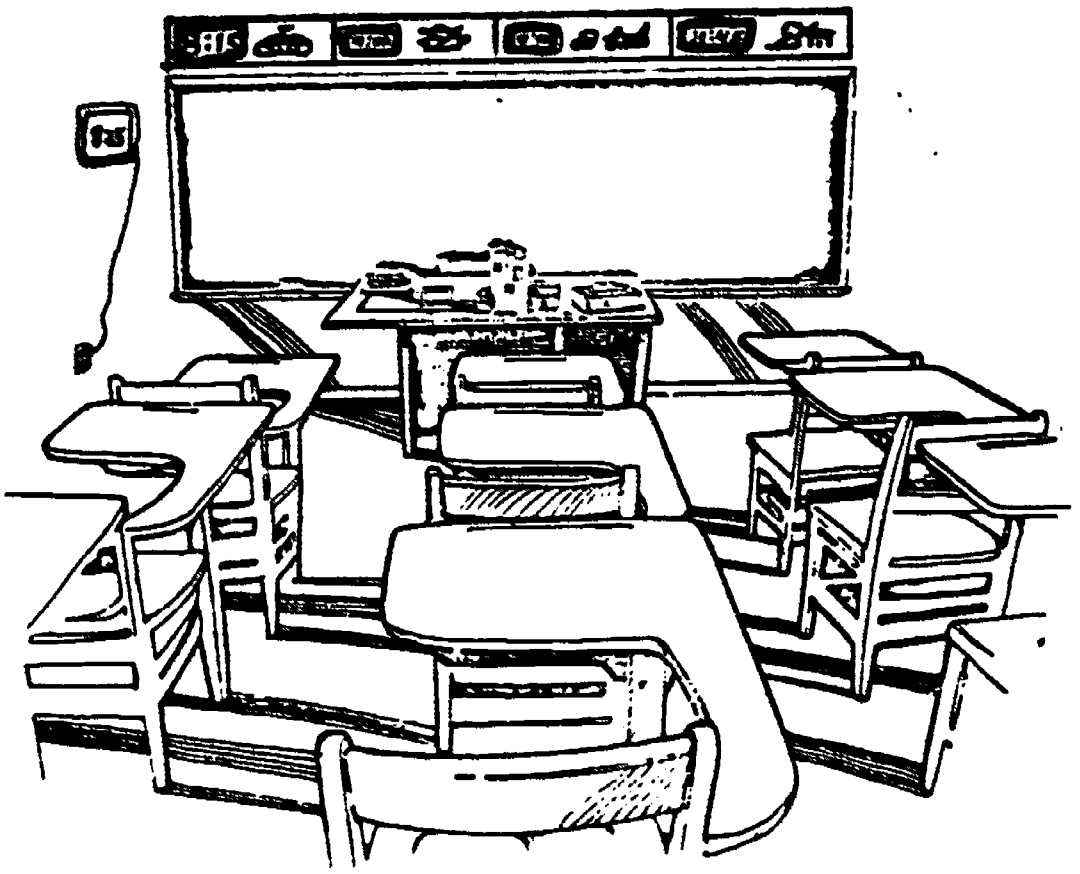


Reading class

11:45 =



lunch



IMPROVING SCIENCE EDUCATION IN RURAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS:

A NEW APPROACH

Presented at
Ninth Annual National Conference of
The American Council on Rural Special Education
Ft. Lauderdale, FL
March 1989

by
Judy M. Dacus and Nora Hutto
Center for Rural Education
New Mexico State University

Judy M. Dacus, Ph.D.
Center for Rural Education
New Mexico State University
Box 30001, Dept. 3R
Las Cruces, NM 88003-0001

Nora Hutto, Ph.D.
Department of Educational Management
New Mexico State University
Box 30001, Dept. 3N
Las Cruces, NM 88003-0001

IMPROVING SCIENCE EDUCATION IN RURAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS: A NEW APPROACH

A cooperative effort between New Mexico rural elementary teachers, the New Mexico Museum of Natural History and New Mexico Center for Rural Education at New Mexico State University has established promising ideas for improving science education in rural schools. The approach outlined here recognizes the needs of rural elementary school teachers as well as the strengths of rural schools. The New Mexico Rural Science Education Project also draws upon the strengths of state Natural History Museums and university-based Centers for Rural Education in order to improve science education in rural elementary schools.

Needs of Rural Elementary School Teachers. Rural elementary school teachers frequently have broad but superficial training in science. Teacher candidates take general science courses which provide an overview of the subject matter with little depth. College level general science courses are test-oriented courses taught to large groups of students in lecture format. The texts used are generic in nature, written to be applicable to students in colleges and universities across the United States. Laboratories, when offered, use planned indoor activities requiring equipment not often affordable outside the college laboratory. Science pedagogy courses are designed to develop teaching methods but do not provide additional depth in the subject matter. Upon reaching the rural elementary classroom, worlds away from their college campuses, many teachers feel inadequately prepared to teach science, let alone to depart from a textbook and develop science activities using local resources.

Teachers in rural elementary schools who are curious about their local flora, fauna, or geology and wish to use natural resources near their school, soon find that there are no reference books or educational materials developed which pertain specifically to their local environment. Excellent generic environmental education materials may be available to them but even these do not capitalize upon the abundant opportunities available locally. Sometimes a parent or other area resident is knowledgeable about one or more aspects of the natural history of the area and can provide assistance to teachers. However, teachers may be inadequately trained to translate this information

into activities which will guide students to discover more about the natural history of the area.

Information on natural history, botany, geology, zoology, etc. pertaining specifically to local environments often exists in abundance in the professional literature of various science disciplines. This, however, is outside the normal reading material of rural elementary school teachers. Unless the teacher has a personal subscription, the material is not readily available to them. Also, the information for any given local area is so scattered through many subject-specific journals and over many volumes depending on when the reported study was completed. Articles are usually research oriented, written in scientific jargon, and meaningful only to others with expertise in the field. Research activities are beyond the reach of the elementary classroom, requiring skills and equipment that are not available.

Rural elementary teachers teach reading, spelling, grammar, mathematics, and social studies and may teach art, music, or physical education along with other subjects. They may have playground or lunchroom duty, sponsor clubs and activities or coach extracurricular sports, to say nothing of family and community commitments, all of which require their time. Teachers do not have spare time to develop science activities which utilize local natural resources, nor do they possess the libraries necessary to research needed background information from the technical literature.

Teachers also work under mandated goals and objectives from their state's Department of Education and their local curriculum committees. Activities must be designed to teach content and skills which meet established goals and objectives. A commercially produced teacher's guide which accompanies the science text and materials used in the classroom provides the teacher with "canned activities designed to teach specific skills. Textbook companies may even have state representatives who will give free in-service workshops to help teachers effectively use the text and materials to meet state and local goals and objectives.

An inadequate background in science, lack of available information about local natural history resources, time constraints, and state and locally mandated goals and objectives, combined with a readily available generic text and materials, make it easier to follow the path of least resistance. Teachers teach as they were taught, using generic texts and materials which are as applicable in New York City as in Magdalena, New Mexico.

Strengths of Rural Schools. Rural schools are usually adjacent to or within walking distance of open areas of land which are rich in natural resources. Forests, riparian areas, grasslands, and other undeveloped land areas near rural schools contain the "stuff of elementary science." Insects, mammals, birds, wildflowers, grasses, trees, rocks, fossils, geologic formations, and many other natural resources can be used in the teaching of science. The open areas provide outdoor classrooms with an abundance of scientific specimens which are not readily available to the urban and suburban schools. The fact that these specimens are representative of the local natural history, and not simply purchased from a science supply catalog, makes them all the more effective in bringing science to the students. On another level, the smaller rural schools have fewer administrators, a shorter chain of command and thus more flexibility in the schedule, making it easier for teachers to plan excursions into the outdoor classroom.

Rural school students typically have greater experience with nature than their urban counterparts. In rural areas, children grow up surrounded by open and natural areas where they play and explore, developing an implicit, experiential knowledge of the natural world. Rural parents are more likely to be

ranchers, farmers, hunters, trappers, or fishermen, and to have gardens than parents in urban or suburban areas. Working with their parents, children begin to develop theories and opinions about the world around them. At the same time, elementary aged children are open to the excitement and joy of science. These students are ready to have science introduced in a way that combines their developing interest in their own environment with methods of exploring that world.

Strengths of Natural History Museums. Museum curators are scientists with expertise in specific areas of natural history. They are also collectors of specimens, concrete objects that embody and exemplify the abstract principles of science. These scientists possess knowledge of their subject, especially as it pertains to local natural history. Museums also have education departments whose day-to-day task is to captivate and educate paying customers who choose to visit the museum. Given this challenge, museum educators develop techniques that are entertaining, educational, and focus on concrete museum specimens. These techniques have much to offer to elementary teachers.

Strengths of Centers for Rural Education. Centers for Rural Education have staff members who have expertise in education and have conducted research in the area of rural education. They have also been involved in training teachers and administrators for rural schools. Because of their work with rural schools within their state, the staff members are familiar with the needs and concerns of rural teachers, especially as the teachers are affected by the local culture, economy, and distance from major centers of higher learning. As educators, in constant communication with state education officials, they are aware of the state-mandated goals and objectives and can provide pedagogical expertise in developing activities to meet these goals and objectives. The staff of the Center for Rural Education provides the bridge between the Natural History Museum and the rural school teachers.

The New Mexico Rural Science Education Project. In response to the perceived needs for support and improvement in rural elementary science classes, the New Mexico Rural Science Education Project (NMRSEP) was formed in 1986 and funded by the National Science Foundation. The general purpose of the NMRSEP is to help improve science education in rural elementary schools and to do so in a way that could be replicated in other states with largely rural populations. In particular, teachers were provided with specific background information and the support they needed to use local natural resources to teach science to children.

Recognizing the needs of rural elementary school teachers and using the strengths of rural schools, the New Mexico Museum of Natural History, and the New Mexico State University Center for Rural Education, NMRSEP has experimented with teacher workshops, teacher-developed natural history activity kits focusing on local materials and themes, natural history field schools, and individualized support services to meet the needs of rural elementary school teachers. The research covered two years with the teacher workshops and development of kits taking place in the first year and the Natural History Field Schools and individualized support services taking place the second year.

NMRSEP is now in its third year and is currently funded with a grant from the New Mexico Commission on Higher Education. At the beginning of the third year, NMRSEP held a Summer Elementary Science Teachers' Institute which immersed participating teachers in a week-long natural history/science education workshop.

Five rural schools in New Mexico participated in the initial two year phase of NMRSEP: Hatch, Magdalena, Estancia, Cuba, and Dulce. A brief profile of each school is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Profile of School Districts Participating in New Mexico Rural Science Education Project

School District:		Cuba	Dulce	Estancia	Hatch	Magdalena
Number of Students enrolled grades 1-6		196	259	322	492	151
Ethnic Diversity of Students:	Anglo	9.7%	0.6	46.5	22.6	20.9
	Hispanic	34.9	9.3	52.8	77.4	35.5
	Native American	55.4	90.1	-	-	43.6
Teachers:	Anglo	31.6	37.8	75.6	71.6	64.3
	Hispanic	57.9	54.1	11.1	28.4	35.7
	Native American	10.5	5.4	-	-	-

Information from: New Mexico School District Profile 1986-1987 School Year

Methods

Teacher Workshops and Activity Kits. Project staff developed sample kits to be used as models by the participating elementary teachers. Day-long workshops were scheduled with participating teachers at each of the five schools. During the workshops, project personnel introduced the project, presented information about local natural history, and exhibited sample kits based upon local environments. A workshop was conducted by a project staff member from the Center for Rural Education on teaching strategies and curriculum development. Staff members also gave seminars on how to develop a science kit using local natural resources and on expected outcomes of the project.

A resource inventory of each participating school's community was conducted, starting with the area near the school. Teachers participated in these surveys that documented the natural history of the area, the materials available and their potential for teaching science to children. Bird and mammal sightings and tracks, the occurrence of plants, and geologic setting were noted and presented to the teachers as the raw materials for kits. At the end of the workshops, regular meetings were scheduled with the teachers during which teachers and project staff reviewed the progress of the kits. Typically, project staff left these meetings with assignments from teachers to collect information on some relevant topic. In this way, project staff and participating teachers functioned as curriculum development teams.

Teachers were expected to develop kits over a period of approximately one year. During this time, field trips to local sites were conducted for teachers led by experts in specific areas of natural history. While one teacher might request a specific field trip pertaining to the development of his or

her kit, typically many of their colleagues, families and students participated as well. In addition a special summer field trip program lasting one to two full days was offered during the summer of 1987.

Teachers were given "Using Local Natural Resources in Science Teaching," a booklet developed by project staff to assist them in planning their own kits. A workshop on science process skills was also offered to teachers in each district to help them in developing their kits. Kits contain background material on the subject, a set of classroom activities based on some aspect of the local natural history, and resources for students wishing to learn more about the specific topic.

Project personnel provided resource materials as requested by teachers. Videotapes, books, articles, and other information were gathered by staff members to assist teachers in the development of the kits. Staff helped with the identification of specimens collected for the kits. They also provided extensive editing services for the teachers, including having the material typed.

Natural History Field Schools. By the end of the first year it was apparent that continuing to prod teachers into producing natural science kits would be non-productive. While teachers continued to be enthusiastic about the natural science workshops, demonstrations, and field trips conducted by project staff, they clearly did not have the time nor the research skills necessary to create science kits and develop activities, even with support of the project staff.

On three separate instances, teachers expressed feelings of guilt and having "let down" project staff in not completing kits. what was needed was a means of instructing teachers about local natural history and science teaching methods in the way that we would like them to teach their students. The program also had to take less time on the part of teachers.

At the beginning of the second year, project staff systematically developed plans for natural history field schools, outdoor natural science events that were both educational and entertaining and that focused on the local environment. The natural history field schools also provided a means of instructing teachers about local natural history and science teaching methods. For each school a nearby site was chosen for the field school locations, typically a National Forest or tribal campground. Project staff arrived at the site the day before the field school was to be held, surveyed the natural history of the area, set out live traps for small mammals, and collected specimens for use in the next day's activities.

Typically, all students at a rural elementary school attended the field school for one of the two days that it was in session. Older students (fourth, fifth, and sixth graders) participated on one day and younger students on the other. As students arrived at the field school, they were greeted by banners and balloons and welcomed by project staff. Students were divided into groups of approximately 15 and given colorful identification buttons with local natural history images on them.

Groups of students rotated from activity station to activity station on a time schedule that gave older students 25-30 minutes for an activity and younger students, 20 minutes. Teachers were divided among the groups so that they could also participate in the activities. Parents were invited to attend and helped monitor student behavior so that teachers could be active participants in field school. Each group participated in six or seven activities depending on time constraints of the day. Activity topics included plants, mammals, insects, geology, birds, pond life, weather, fossils, owls, nature, sketching, and trees. Not all activity stations were available at each field

school. Rather, each field school was designed to take advantage of the particular natural resources of each community and field school site.

After field schools, packets of information and suggested follow-up activities were sent to teachers for their information and for use in the classroom. Project staff collected questions that were asked during the course of the field school and sent answers and a bibliography of suggested readings to teachers. Project staff also conducted follow-up meetings with the teachers to encourage and motivate them to use these activities and to work with the teachers to incorporate the activities within the established science curriculum for the school.

Summer Elementary Science Teachers' Institute. At the beginning of the third year, NMRSEP responded to teachers' requests for more in-depth instruction in natural science field activities by staging our most ambitious workshop to date, called the "Summer Elementary Science Teachers' Institute" (SESTI). SESTI was a five day residential workshop offered to teachers that were selected from each of 15 rural school districts that had chosen to participate in the NMRSEP during the 1988-89 school year. In addition to project staff from the New Mexico Museum of Natural History and the New Mexico State University Center for Rural Education, SESTI attracted many voluntary faculty from the museum, the University of New Mexico, the USDA Soil Conservation Service, the New Mexico Department of Game and Fish, and the USDA Forest Service. All guest instructors participated at no cost to the project and with permission of their employers

At SESTI, teachers and staff participated in a wide variety of science activities and explored the natural resources and fossil-rich badlands areas in the Nacimiento Mountains just east of Cuba, New Mexico. Through these activities, teachers gained extensive hands-on experience in natural science field studies. It was an opportunity for project staff to offer rural elementary teachers the best of the ideas, activities, and information developed over the course of the past two years.

Each activity at SESTI focused on the immediate environment of the Circle A Guest Ranch where the institute was headquartered. However, skills and activities learned during the week were transferable to each of the participating school districts. Teachers from each district met periodically during the week in order to adapt activities and approaches to their home environments and resources.

After SESTI, teachers were given an environmental survey form to complete, which identified local natural resources and opportunities for activities and/or needs for adapting existing ones. Over the course of the 1988-89 school year, project staff will visit each of the schools represented at SESTI and conduct natural science workshops focusing on the local environment. Project staff will be assisted in these workshops by local teachers who participated in SESTI.

Results

Evaluation of First Year Activities. A modified transactional evaluation model was used to evaluate the first year of the project. Teachers at two schools were interviewed, eliciting comments about development of kits, work with project staff, and participation in natural history field trips. A questionnaire was then developed from comments made in these two schools. Respondents are asked to agree or disagree with statements on a 1-4 Likert type scale with "1" being strongly agree and "4" being strongly disagree. The instrument has been used with teachers in two other schools. Table 2 presents

the statements concerning first year activities with which responding schools agreed as indicated by a mean response of less than 2.0.

Table 2

Responses of Elementary Teachers Participating in NMRSEP

Statement	Average Response
I enjoyed doing the research on my kit.	1.3
The support from Rural Science Education and Museum people was very good.	1.0
I would have liked a detailed outline of what was needed for putting together a kit.	1.5
I really enjoyed the trips the teachers took out in the field.	1.0
This project is helping me get an idea of what to do when I take my students outside.	1.4
I feel that working on the kits was very worthwhile	1.3
I am more enthusiastic about science since being in this project.	1.6

Teachers were very receptive to the overall project. They enjoyed learning about their local natural history and enjoyed working with project personnel. Some teachers reported that they had enjoyed the research they did in developing the kits. All teachers involved stated that doing the kits was worthwhile. Most expressed interest in seeing the kits which were developed at other schools. From the point of the view of the project staff, however, having teachers develop natural history kits was not viewed as a successful strategy for producing coherent, well-organized materials that could be shared between teachers within a district (i.e. according to plan.) However, during the second year, project staff discovered many positive outcomes of the teachers' science kits development project:

1. Many of the participating teachers (60%) were still collecting background materials for their kits as well as natural history specimens.
2. They were teaching science units to their students and using what they had developed.
3. Teachers indicated that they had learned a great deal from having worked on their kits and were very enthusiastic about them.

The natural history field trips were the most enjoyable to teachers. Project personnel and teachers spent the day immersing themselves in the local environment and its natural history. Following these experiences, teachers stated that they were now more aware of their local environment and the opportunities it offered for teaching and learning about science.

Evaluation of Second Year Activities. Teachers and parents were asked to assist with the evaluation of the field schools by responding to several questions. Comments were also invited. Each participating adult was given an evaluation card as he or she began an activity and the card from the previous activity was collected at that time. Response rate approached 100%. Non-responses occurred only when the teacher or parent hat to leave the station to

discipline a student or to escort younger ones to restrooms, neither of which happened frequently.

Table 3 indicates the percentage of responses to each question from three of the five field schools. Since there were no significant differences in responses from the individual field schools, data from the field schools have been combined.

Table 3

Evaluation of Field Schools

Statement		Percent Responding:			
		Yes	No	No Response	N/A*
Students learned to observe the natural environment		92.8%	3.0%	4.8%	-
Students learned how to properly collect a science specimen		76.4%	10.9%	10.9%	5.5%
Students learned how to work as a group		82.9%	9.1%	7.3%	3.0%
Students learned to protect the natural environment		55.5%	15.9%	25.0%	3.7%
Students learned that science can be fun		98.2%	0.6%	1.2%	-
Will you as a teacher or parent try to discuss activities presented at this station in your class or home?		89.6%	0.6%	9.8%	-
Was the amount of time allowed at this station	too long?	5.6%			
	about right?	67.7%			
	too short?	26.7%			
Considering your group, was material presented at this station					
	too complicated?	6.9%			
	about right?	91.9%			
	too simple?	1.3%			
Would you like handouts and other materials on this topic to use?		92.9%	0.9%	6.3%	

*Some respondents wrote that this was not applicable.

Teachers and parents were very complimentary about the field schools, stating that they had learned new things along with the students and that they had really enjoyed the day. The enthusiasm of parents was very important. Many times project personnel could not distinguish between teachers and parents. Sometimes the parents were more involved and enthusiastic than teachers. Since parental involvement with schools plays a role in improving the schools, field schools might be used at some later date for the purpose of increasing parental involvement in school. Parents frequently requested information from project staff after field schools and also requested that they be invited to attend future sessions. In several cases teachers discovered parents who were knowledgeable about certain aspects of natural history.

A variety of suggestions were offered for improving the field school. All comments were constructive, offering the project personnel information on ways to make the field schools better. Many useful suggestions from field school participants were put into effect in later field schools.

Students were interviewed informally throughout the day during breaks and at lunch time. Most enjoyed the field school. Some wanted more time at stations in which they had the most interest. Discipline problems were minimal indicating that students were participating in each station according to instructions given by the person in charge of the station. A few students expanded on an activity they had seen at the field school for science fair projects later in the year.

Evaluation of Summer Elementary Science Teachers' Institute. Participating teachers were given a science subject matter pre- and post-test that had been developed by SESTI instructors based upon the course syllabus. They were also queried on a number of other topics relating to the selection of topics for SESTI, the enjoyment of activities, the relative usefulness of the sessions to teachers, and suggestions for improvements for next year's program. Teachers were also given a science attitude survey at the beginning of SESTI which will be repeated after on-site visits are completed.

Graph 1 illustrates the gains made between pre- and post-test scores. As can be seen from the graph, teachers familiarity with the subject matter varied greatly when they arrived at SESTI. However, all teachers improved their scores significantly over the course of the week.

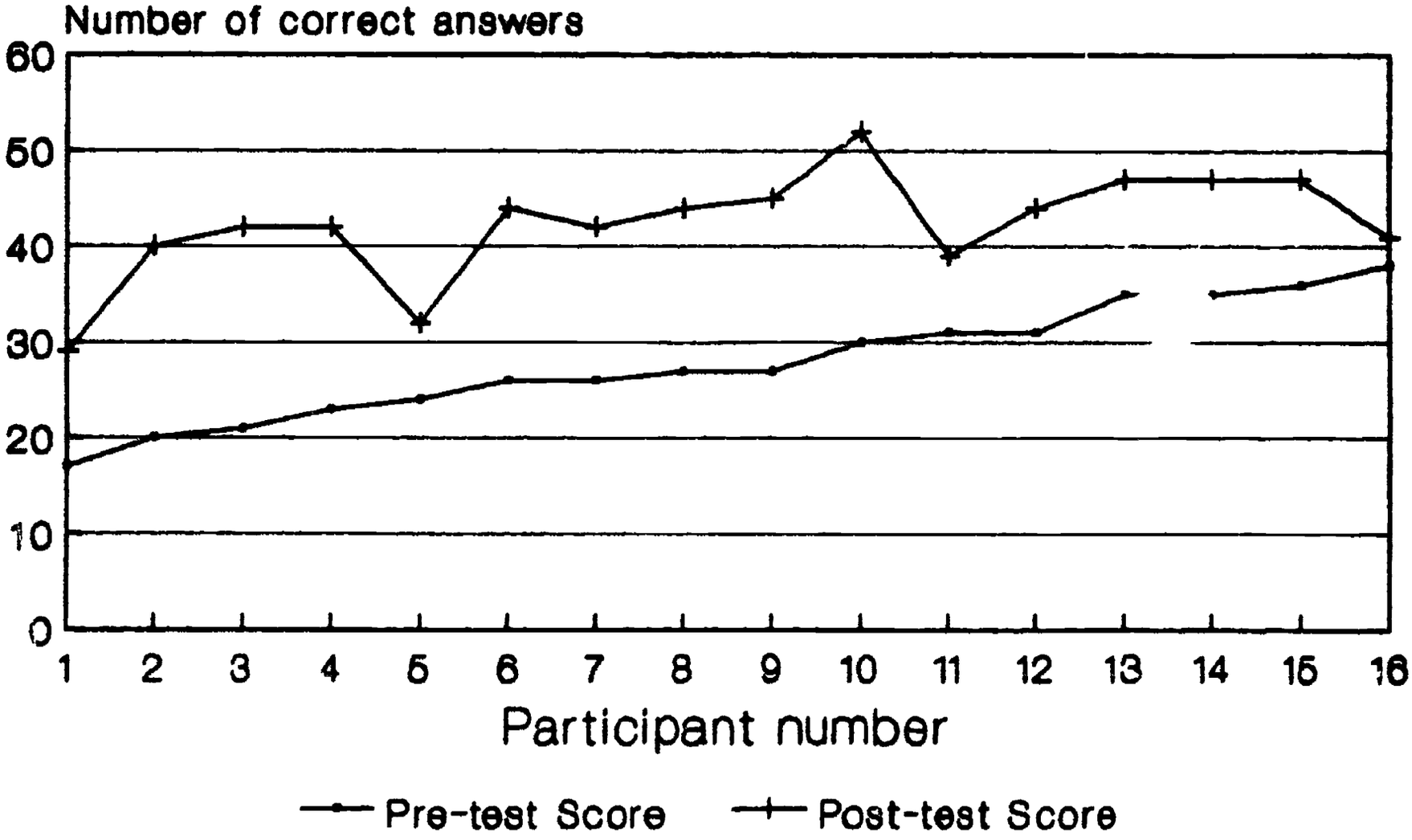
Equally as important as learning subject matter, teachers' responses to evaluations and their open-ended comments were enthusiastically positive about the science activities and SESTI, in general. This enthusiasm hopefully will carry over to the classroom and will be translated into more and better science education for students.

Summary of Accomplishments: Under National Science Foundation sponsorship, the New Mexico Museum of Natural History and the New Mexico Center for Rural Education at New Mexico State University joined forces to create a team consisting of rural educators, science educators, naturalists, scientists, and curriculum developers. Since 1986 this collaboration, called the New Mexico Rural Science Education Project, has:

1. Developed and tested an educational model for training rural teachers to teach science that utilizes the strengths of rural schools, university centers of rural education, and museums of natural history.
2. Worked with rural elementary teachers by providing information and resources and assisted the teachers to develop activity kits and collections of specimens for use in their schools.
3. Planned and executed natural history field schools for rural elementary schools that demonstrated hands-on science activities and modeled effective teaching methods.
4. Planned and conducted the first annual "Summer Elementary Science Teachers' Institute," an intensive week-long science education retreat for rural teachers. 5. Established a state-wide network of scientists, technicians, and naturalists who are willing to conduct science programs in rural schools on a volunteer basis.

The New Mexico Rural Science Education Project is continuing this project in order to reach all of the rural school districts in the state.

SESTI
Participant Scores



Maximum possible score = 58

Implementing Comprehensive Parent Services

in

Small Rural School Districts

Conference Presentation Paper
ACRES National Conference
March, 1989

Parent Services Project
Leon County School District

Parent Services Project
Leon County School District
Tallahassee, Florida

Introduction

The Parent Services Project is a three-year multicounty effort to improve and expand services to parents of exceptional children, ages 0-21, in eight rural, small-sized school districts in North Florida. The theoretical approach that governs this project is based upon the premise that all aspects of a parent's life must be taken into account when parents deal with their child's exceptionality. This approach includes:

1. facilitating parents' normal grieving process;
2. emphasizing the importance of parents themselves taking responsibility for the on-going implementation of their child's program, primarily the community educational efforts;
3. emphasizing parents' roles as educator, supporter, consumer, initiator, communicator, creator, and advocate.

In rural small sized-school districts the barriers for parent involvement are significant. Isolation of parents, low socio-economic status, cultural differences, limited resources, limited knowledge and educational ability, lack of child care and transportation, multi-problem issues, intimidation by professionals, and lack of professional training create challenges for meeting the needs of rural families.

Special efforts through community involvement and interagency collaboration have been made to address the special needs of minority parents, handicapped parents, teenage parents, rural/isolated parents, non-reading parents, parents of low socio-economic status, single parents, and foster parents.

This paper will examine the history of parent involvement in Florida, review national models for parent participation, and summarize the Parent/ Professional Partnership Model for Small Rural School Districts. Strategies are focused on methods that are particularly applicable for rural, isolated, minority, and "hard to reach" families.

Historical Perspective
(Parent Services Executive Planning Committee, 1986)

Records throughout the United States document the history of parent involvement in exceptional student education beginning before the Civil War. Initially, parents of deaf, blind, and crippled children acquired legislative support for residential facilities, educational programs, and diagnostic services for their children. Parent groups for the mentally handicapped and physically handicapped were organized prior to World War II and expanded during and after the war. These groups were successful in acquiring legislative funding for educational programs. During the 1950's and 1960's, the movement of programs for the mentally handicapped into public schools began. Parents of learning disabled and emotionally handicapped populations became organized and demanded public school programs for their children. Other parents of handicapped children followed in the movement for public education services.

From the 1940's until the 1970's, parents advocated for appropriate services and programs for their children. This advocacy resulted in the passage of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, which mandated free and appropriate education for all students, regardless of the handicapping condition.

During the 1980's, parent groups began to facilitate training and provide education for parents about Public Law 94-142. Statewide training in Florida was conducted by Florida's Protective and Advocacy Agencies and the Governor's Commission on Advocacy. In 1981, the Florida Diagnostic and Learning Resource Centers (FDLRS), under the direction of the Bureau of Education for Exceptional Students (BEES), included emphasis on parent information and training.

In 1985, BEES established the Parent Services Executive Planning Committee to assess the need for parent services in Florida. The Committee developed goals, objectives, and recommendations for improving and expanding parent services within the state of Florida. During this same time, two statewide parent organizations were established - Parent to Parent of Florida and the Parent Education Network.

BEES recognized the need for increased involvement from minority and "hard to reach" parents. In 1987, the Parent/Professional Task Force was formed to address these issues and to develop methods for increasing parent participation. Also in 1987, the University of South Florida/FDLRS Center provided funding for Human Assistance Network Direction Service (HANDS), previously a subcommittee of PEN, and BEES funded five demonstration Parent Services Projects in Florida. The regional projects will develop strategies for comprehensive parent services throughout Florida.

It is important to recognize that the history of exceptional student education runs parallel to a history of organized political action by parents. It is likely that most rural, isolated, or hard to reach parents had little involvement in this political movement.

Models of Parent Participation

Few local, state, or national models exist for parent and community participation in education. Those that do exist have been primarily federally funded (Edge & Kroth, 1985).

In Florida there are currently three statewide parent participation programs: Parent to Parent of Florida, a peer support model; Parent Education Network, a parent education model; and Human Assistance Network Direction Services, an information-casemanagement model. Each of these programs was established for or by parents, each strive to work cooperatively with local school districts and community agencies, and each functions independently.

Parent to Parent of Florida, Inc.

Parent to Parent of Florida support programs are based on the philosophy that parents, who themselves have experienced the joys and frustrations of parenting a special child, can offer new parents the richness of an empathetic, sensitive, and skilled listener who can extend friendship as well as valuable information on resources available to the family.

Parent-to-Parent of Florida works toward providing one-to-one support, encouraging effective communication, facilitating networking, enhancing public awareness, and identifying services gaps (Parent to Parent of Florida, 1986).

Parent Education Network of Florida, Inc. (PEN)

The Parent Education Network of Florida, known as "PEN," is a working coalition between parent support/advocacy groups, parents of handicapped individuals, professionals who are intimately involved in the problems of the handicapped, and dedicated members of the community at large.

PEN was organized to provide training programs for parents of handicapped children, identification of training and information programs presently available in handicap support groups, a network of PEN volunteers who can facilitate accessing PEN services for local parents of handicapped children, and a quarterly newsletter for parents of handicapped children. Training programs include communication skills, federal law, the evaluation process, and the individual educational plan (Parent Education Network of Florida, Inc., 1986).

Human Assistance Network Direction Service (HANDS)

Direction Service was founded in Florida by a group of concerned parents who were introduced to the concept by the National Direction Service Project in 1986. Originally a project of the Parent Education Network, it is now supported by various state agencies, volunteers, and local community service groups.

People with disabilities or chronic illness and their families face a complicated maze of educational, social, and medical services. Services are often scattered throughout the community and operated by a variety of agencies with different eligibility requirements. Millions of families have faced this dilemma without support, finding their own way through the maze in an attempt to meet the needs of their family member.

With the implementation of Direction Service, information will be provided to individuals and families on services available to high risk, disabled or chronically ill persons and their families. The goal of Direction Service is to provide a one-stop source of information and personal assistance program, and to eventually develop a "care management" system for special needs families (Human Assistance Network Direction Service, 1987).

Parent participation within local school districts can be categorized into three general areas: parent training, parent education and parent involvement (Edge & Kroth, 1985).

Parent Training concentrates on skill development in parents, involves a limited number of parents, and is delivered in schools, clinics, or educational centers by a group leader or on an individual basis.

Parent Education concentrates on general parent activities usually initiated by parents, involves the most active parents, and is generally delivered at the school district level through PTA's or PTO's,

Parent Involvement concentrates on parent activities initiated by both the parent and teacher, is designed to involve any parent in program activities, and is generally delivered at school building level by administrators, teachers and parents.

Even though many school districts provide parent service activities (newsletters, parent advisory committees, parent trainers, parent mediators, school study committees), there appears to be limited evidence of a comprehensive parent services model to address the needs of all parents.

Parent/Professional Partnership

In assessing the existing services and needs of parents in North Florida, a number of factors had to be considered in developing a successful and practical method for increasing parent involvement.

Eight of the targeted school districts were considered to be small-sized districts. The majority of the families within many of these districts are minorities, are of low socio-economic status, or are culturally divergent. Many of these parents may have experienced failure in school themselves and, as a result, now feel intimidated by professionals.

Professionals lack the training to create consistently successful methods of meeting the needs of rural families. The majority of professionals surveyed, in fact, had never completed any training in parent involvement strategies.

Assumptions often dictate reactions to parent involvement. Parents and professionals often fail to recognize the absolute impact parent involvement can make in the educational process of children. Moreover, parents and professionals may fail to recognize that culture creates boundaries which must be overcome.

Research documents the link between parent involvement and the academic and social development of children in school (Davies, 1988). Ann Henderson summarized this research:

> When parents are involved, children do better in school, and they go to better schools . . . Children whose parents help them at home and stay in touch with the school score higher than children of similar aptitude and family background, whose parents are not involved (Henderson, 1986).

Roger Kroth (1986) states that parents are not a homogeneous group; they have strengths as well as weaknesses, and they do have the ability to help professionals educate their children.

Culturally different family values and life styles do not necessarily mean "bad" (Turnbull & Turnbull, 1987). Many beliefs held by minority families may actually be a strength for coping with and caring for children with handicaps. Differences among people cannot be ignored, and culturally divergent groups cannot be stereotyped (Correa, 1989).

Changing family structures create new challenges for educators, especially those committed to parent involvement. Hodgkinson's (1985) report on the demographics of education further substantiates the changing family structure of children enrolled in schools. The report stresses some very important issues for educators. Specifically, it indicates

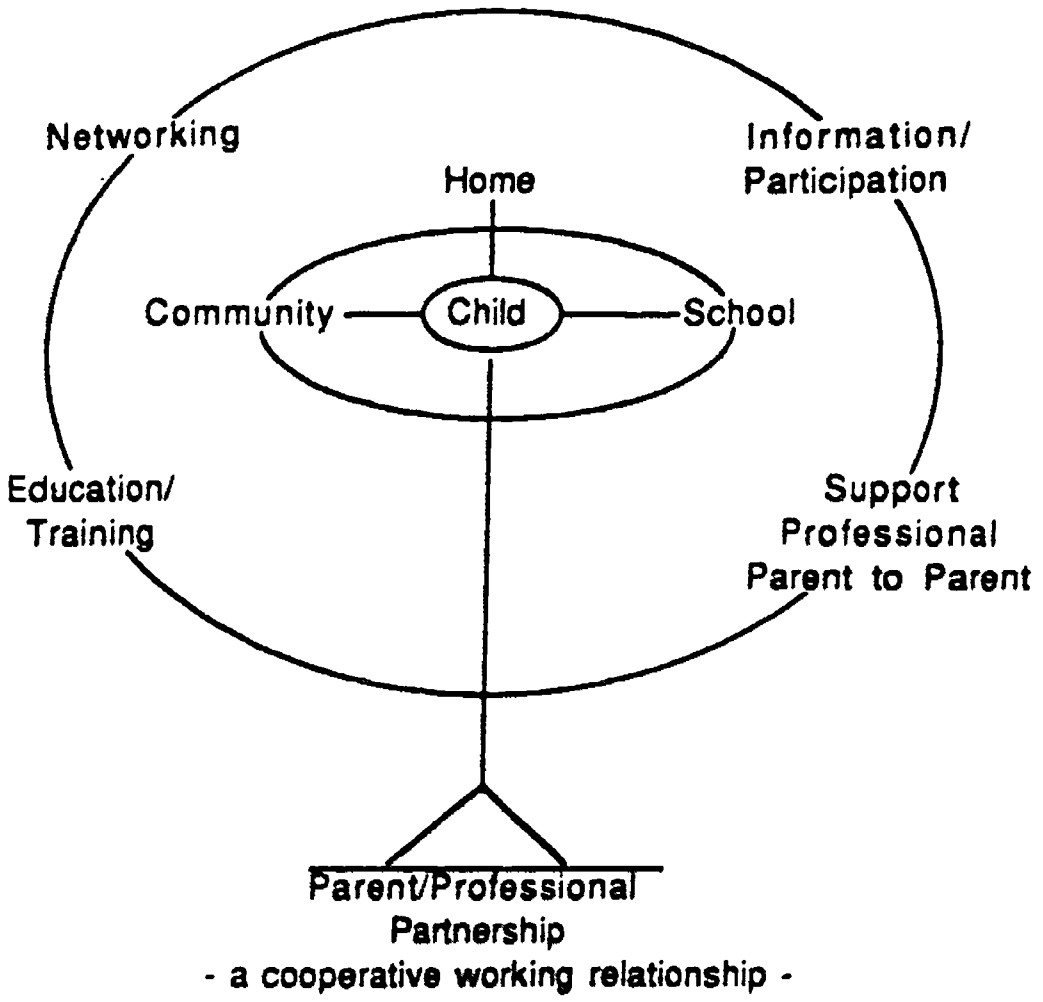
1. More children entering school from poverty households
2. More children entering schools from single-parent households
3. More children from minority backgrounds
4. A smaller percentage of children who have had Head Start and similar programs, even though more are eligible
5. A larger number of children who were premature babies, leading to more learning difficulties in school
6. More children from teen-age mothers.

Hodgkinson (1985) further states that the rapid increase in minorities among the school population is here to stay. Professionals are challenged to put aside the assumptions, the stereotypes, the attitudes of yesterday and create an educational system that is "reachable" for the families of the 80's.

Parent/Professional Partnership Model

The Parent/Professional Partnership Model is a comprehensive involvement plan for improving or expanding services to parents of exceptional students. Each component can be implemented individually or in conjunction with other components for more comprehensive services. A parent/professional partnership is truly demonstrated when a cooperative working relationship exists between parents and professionals. This partnership is highlighted by mutual respect and common understanding and is developed through comprehensive services to parents and professionals: training, education, participation, support, sharing of information, networking, and advocacy.

Developing new programs in rural school districts requires knowledge, commitment, and a tremendous level of creativity. For success, take small, but sure, steps to expanded services.



Networking

To effectively plan for parent involvement, it is extremely important to be aware of resources that are available within the community. Effective collaborative efforts through interagency councils and the community can create an array of services and programs available for parents. Guidance counselors, child study teams or coun ils serve as sources of sharing information, training and casemanagement for children and families.

The Parent Education Network (1986) defines three principles of networking.

1. Know the network - Become familiar with services that may serve the child.
2. Mobilize the network - Become acquainted with service providers face-to-face. Provide initiative to communicate with one another.
3. Develop a heart network - Become aware of positive and supportive qualities or personality traits in people. Energy and a positive attitude are traits of a true professional.

Strategies for Successful Networking
(Scaturro, 1986)

1. Become familiar with key resources (HRS, School System, Community Mental Health). Know the function of each resource, and meet staff face-to-face.
2. Become familiar with support services (basic needs, health, spouse and child abuse, area private therapists). Become familiar with the philosophies and specialties of the individuals on staff.
3. When working with a family, recognize that a network of community professionals may also be working with the family.
4. Develop a "heart" network of people you can count on or that have values similar to yours. This enhances your personal energy and strengthens services to the client timing.
5. Periodically reinforce and energize individuals in your network.
6. Be genuine with individuals in the network. People prefer honesty to false compliments.
7. Don't be afraid to say, "I don't know."
8. Respect each other's roles in the process. Avoid "put downs" of other professions or agencies.
9. Don't reinforce negative thinking. Practice a "can do" attitude, especially when parents are present.
10. Avoid professional jargon. Learn to use understandable, simple language when describing problems and solutions.
11. Recognize the traits of a networker. Signals include:

    a. knowing everyone when you walk in the room
    b. knowing people's "hidden agendas"
    c. knowing people's roles and the limits involved with those roles
    d. being sought for information and expertise
    e. being able to explain the network to others
    f. having the ability to influence policies that affect families

Information/Participation

Henderson (1986) describes five basic roles that parents assume in the education of their children.

1. Partners: parents performing basic obligations for their child's educational and social development.
2. Collaborators and Problem Solvers: parents reinforcing the school's efforts with their child and helping to solve problems.
3. Audience: parents attending and participating in school performances and productions.
4. Supporters: parents providing volunteer assistance to teachers, parent organizations, and other parents.
5. Advisors and/or Co-decision Makers: parents providing input on school policy and program.

Heleen (1988) identifies an additional role of parents, the role of advocate. Advocacy can be of two types: "either individual case advocacy or class advocacy." Heleen further states that "advocacy involves conflicting values and interests, but may happen in one-to-one situations, e.g., a parent advocating a 'better shake' for the child."

Empowerment is "a process through which people become more able to influence those people and organizations that affect their lives and the lives of those they care about" (Vanderslice, 1984). Advocacy efforts can lead to parent empowerment and positive change for children.

Progress toward family-centered, community-based programs must be a cooperative effort between parents and professionals. Leaders in advocacy (parents or professionals) must work collaboratively and network for change. "No one parent, no one agency or program is more important than another. All play a vital role in contributing to improving programs" (Odle, 1988).

Kroth (1985) describes levels of parent participation as illustrated by the Mirror Model. This model attempts to respect the strengths of parents as well as acknowledge parent needs:

Level 1: All parents receive and need basic information.
Level 2: Most parents would like to receive more specific information about their child's educational program and related activities.
Level 3: Some parents need and participate in workshops or training programs.
Level 4: A few parents need and request more intensive training development or therapeutic intervention.

When school districts begin to develop plans for improving or expanding services to parents, parent roles and levels of participation must be considered. One method will not address the needs of all parents. A continuum of services, however, can better address the varied needs of individual families.

Strategies for Successful Parent Participation
(Parent/Professional Task Force Report, 1987-1988)

1. Provide information to parents by a simple-to-read newsletter, teacher notes, pamphlets, etc. Information can be sent to isolated communities via persons who frequent the areas on a regular basis - mail carriers, utility meter readers, bus drivers, ministers, etc.
2. Utilize telephone trees, classroom parents, parent coordinator or classroom teacher to call parents.
3. Utilize local media - newspapers, radio and television.
4. Provide video tapes for viewing by parents in the home.
5. Make home visits to those families who are unable or unwilling to come to the school.
6. Plan programs that include the children, either as participants or performers. Coordinate efforts with state and local school and parent organizations for parent-to-parent support, training, or education.
7. Include parents as decision makers in school, district, and state planning and advisory councils.
8. Train parents as trainers, and recruit parents as school volunteers.
9. Schedule meetings at times and locations that are accessible and non-threatening to parents (church or other community locations).
10. Include child care and provide transportation or car pooling, if feasible.

Strategies for Successful Advocacy

1. Establish mutual respect and trust for parents and professionals alike.
2. Develop the commitment to team playing.
3. Establish the willingness to listen openly and without defensiveness to the perspectives of others.
4. Remember that the goal of advocacy is to improve programs for children and their families.

Support

The role of the supporter, parent or professional, is to acknowledge the feelings of parents and to recognize the legitimacy in having those feelings. Their purpose is not to attempt to "fix-it" by making the problems go away or making the hurt go away (Dawson & Terrien, 1984-85). Professional supporters can provide empathetic and sustained assistance which can enable parents to better understand and cope with all facets of life related to the exceptional student and their family (Parent Services Executive Planning Committee, 1986). Parent-to-parent support can provide peer assistance from parents who have "been there."

Strategies for Successful Support Services
(Dawson & Terrien, 1984-85)

1. Understand the grief process. Grieving is a normal reaction.
2. Recognize that parents fall in and out of grief at different stages of the child's life.
3. Recognize that mothers and fathers grieve at separate times and in different ways.
    a. Men are usually angrier and less likely to share feelings, especially guilt.
    b. Women most often turn anger inward and become depressed.
4. Recognize that parents of children with learning disabilities or emotional behavioral disturbances usually grieve for longer periods of time. Hidden handicaps are easier to deny.
5. Supporters must be neutral and non-judgemental.
6. Participate in a parent support training program. Become familiar with effective communication techniques and the do's and don't for supporting parents.

Education/Training

Professional Training

It has been documented in the research that professionals lack training to understand the techniques and methods for effectively involving hard-to-reach parents in the educational process (Parent/Professional Task Force,1987-1988). Most parents are "reachable," but professionals are either not trying to involve them or lack the knowledgeable and sensitivity to overcome barriers of culture, class, or language (Davies, 1988). "If school staff develops greater sensitivity and awareness to the barriers facing many parents, the criticism and blame for lack of participation can be replaced by a willingness to work with parents" (Parent/Professional Task Force Report, 1987-1988).

Strategies for Successful Professional Involvement

Require inservice training in cultural diversities and family involvement. Suggested topics are:

a. Benefits of parent involvement
b. Professionals working in partnership with parents
c. Communication skills
d. The grief process
e. Networking: Case management versus care management
f. The IEP in Partnership
g. Effective conferencing
h. Development of parent/professional involvement plans
i. Cultural differences: family structure, child rearing, family management, etc.

Parent Education/Training

Education and training for parents is directly related to parent need. The development of the parent/professional partnership should begin during the pre-placement process and continue throughout the child's educational program. Early involvement of parents creates the opportunity for the future development of the parent/professional partnership (Parent/Professional Task Force Report, 1987-1988).

The primary purpose of parent training is to identify certain behaviors, in the child or within the family, that are in need of change. Parents discuss strategies for changing behavior and methods for implementing these strategies within the family environment (Kroth, 1985). Parents are also taught how to evaluate the effectiveness of the program. Kroth suggests three formats for parent training.

1. Individual training accompanied by materials
2. A self-instructional package
3. Small group instruction

Parent education focuses on the parent becoming a part of the educational process. Schools often conduct special activities for educating parents about the educational process, child development or related matters (Kroth, 1985). Kroth also indicates that parent education allows for a wide range of persons to participate in forming educational policy, developing school curriculum, organizing extracurricular activities, etc. Suggested topic areas for parent training/education:

1. Basic Needs: nutrition, housing, clothing, financial resources, medical records, transportation
2. Family services: emotional support, counseling, stress management, time management, siblings, teaching your handicapped child at home
3. Working with professionals: communication skills, eligibility criteria for different programs, individual educational plan, developing a partnership with professionals
4. Legislation: rights of children, rights of parents, rights of adults with disabilities, trusts, guardianship, will planning
5. Transition services (from school to community work): sheltered/community employment, residential options (group homes, etc.)
6. Related Services
7. Community resources

Practical Applications for Rural Small Sized School Districts

Stage 1 - Assess, Network, Professional Training

1. Assess family strengths and needs.

    a. educational level
    b. socio-economic status
    c. family structures
    d. cultural differences
    e. traditions
    f. level of involvement
    g. interests

2. Assess attitudes and priorities of professionals within the school district and the community.

3. Assess community resources.

    a. social service agencies
    b. private foundations and service providers
    c. hospitals
    d. churches
    e. radio
    f. television
    g. civic organizations
    h. public library

4. Provide attitude framework and training for professionals.

    a. benefits cf parent involvement
    b. professionals working in partnership with parents
    c. the grief process
    d. networking: case management verses care management
    e. the IEP in partnership
    f. effective conferencing
    g. development of parent/professional involvement plans
    h. cultural differences: family structure, child rearing family management, etc.

5. Establish interagency collaborative efforts for parents.

    a. information/referral
    b. case management
    c. coordination of services
    d. multi-agency training programs
    e. community based programs
    f. volunteer programs

Stage II - Information, Participation

1. Disseminate information to families and professionals.

   a. media - public service announcements
   b. parent information packets
   c. resource directory
   d. home-school notebooks
   e. newsletters
   f. video tapes

2. Develop methods for parent participation at various levels of involvement.

   a. partners
   b. collaborators and problem solvers
   c. audience
   d. supports
   e. advisors and/or co-decision makers

3. Develop interagency referral process for providing services to families.

   a. support
   b. training
   c. education

Stage III - Expand Information/Participation Strategies
Training, Education
Advocacy

1. Develop methods for parent training.

   a. home-based model
   b. video
   c. teacher-parent plan

2. Develop methods for parent education.

   a. community programs
   b. interagency collaboration
   c. school-based programs

3. Create opportunities for parents to be advocates for their children.

4. Create parent/professional information center to serve as single point for coordination of services and outreach activities to all families.

   a. networking
   b. information/participation
   c. support
   d. education/training

Summary

The purpose of this paper has been to examine the history of parent involvement in Florida, review national models for parent participation and to summarize the Parent/Professional Model for Small Rural School Districts.

Research indicates that when parents are involved, children do better in school. In rural, small-sized school districts, however, the barriers for parent involvement can be significant.

The Parent/Professional Partnership Model is one of involvement and commitment of parents and professionals. The potential for this partnership far exceeds the expectations of parents and professionals alike. The Model suggests that a true partnership is based upon a cooperative working relationship between parents and professionals. This partnership is highlighted by:

mutual respect
reciprocal training
common understanding
common vocabulary
common goals (Advisory Committee Task Report, 1986)

. . . and the positive result is the educational opportunity that can be created for children.

Parents and professionals alike are challenged to put aside the assumptions, the stereotypes, and the attitudes of yesterday. The goals are within reach, but the commitment must be strong.

References

Correa, Vivian I. (1989). Involving culturally diverse families in the education of limited English proficient handicapped and at risk students. Bilingual and and Bilingual Special Education: An Administrator's Handbook. Boston: College-Hill Publications (In Press).

Davies, D. (1988). Low-income parents and the schools: A research report and a plan for action. Equity and Choice, Spring, 1988:51-57.

Dawson, Shari E. & Terrien, A.C. Another Parent Knows: Peer Support to Parents of Children With Disabilities. Training offered by The Effective Parents Project, Inc. Grand Junction, Colorado: 1984-1985.

Edge, D. & Kroth R. (1985). Models of Parent Involvement. Louisville, Kentucky: Parent Education & Resource Center, Instructional Communications Center, University of Louisville.

Heleen, Owen. Involving the "hard to reach" parent: A working model. Equity and Choice, Spring, 1988: pp. 60-63

Henderson, A., Marburger, C. & Ooms, T. (1986). Beyond the bake sale: An educator's guide to working parents. Columbia, Maryland: The National Committee for Citizens in Education. pp. 2-15.

Hodgkinson, H.L. (1985). All one system: Demographics of Education - Kindergarten Through Graduate School. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Educational Leadership, Inc.

Human Assistance Network Direction Service. (1987). Direction Service Fact Sheet. Tampa, Florida: Florida Diagnostic and Learning Resource System, Univeristy of South Florida Associate Center.

Kroth, R. (1985). Communication with parents of exceptional children: Improving parent-teacher relationships (3rd ed.). Denver: Love Publishing Company.

Kroth, R. & Davis, D.T. (1986) A report to parent groups and state departments of education about information dissemination and communication practices in the South Atlantic Regional Resource Center area. Plantation, FL: South Atlantic Regional Resource Center.

Odle, K. Empowerment versus power. Special News, October/November, 1988. Reno, Nevada: Project Assist, A Direction Service of Nevada.

Parent Education Network of Florida, Inc. (1986). Parent Education Network Fact Sheet. Tampa, FLorida.

Parent/Professional Task Force. (1987-88). Involving the Minority and Isolated Parents in the Education of Their Exceptional Children. Tallahasse, Florida: Florida Department of Education, Bureau of Education for Exceptional Students.

Parent Services Executive Planning Committee. (1986). Parent services to support Florida's exceptional students. Tallahassee, Florida: Florida Department of Education.

Parent to Parent of Florida, Inc. (1986). Parent to Parent fact sheet. Tampa, Florida.

Scaturro, J. (1986). Networking Tips. Severely Emotionally Disturbed Network, Tallahassee, Florida: Leon County School Board.

Turnbull, A.P., & Turnbull, H.R. (1987). Families, professionals, and exceptionality: A special partnership. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill.

Vanderslice, V. Empowerment: A definition in process. Human Ecology Forum, 14:1, 1984.

Managing Occupational Therapy in Rural Education: O.T. Student Perceptions of Adaptive Classroom Behaviors

Managing Occupational Therapy in Rural Education (M.O.R.E.), a grant project funded by Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS) is designing a preservice training curriculum for occupational therapy students so that they might acquire those unique skills needed to work in rural educational settings. The project, currently in Year Two is directing it's efforts at improving the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of occupational therapy students in regard to the unique social, environmental, and educational needs of the rural setting. A variety of didactic and experiential learning opportunities are being utilized. For this project, rural is defined as a school district which has fewer than 150 inhabitants per square mile, or is located in counties in which less than 60% of the population lives in communities with less than 5,000 inhabitants (Helge 1984). School districts not considered rural are those who have over 10,000 students, or are determined by the United States Census Bureau to be located within a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area.

The national geographical distribution of occupational therapists by county was analyzed in a study conducted by the American Occupational Therapy Association and supported by the Bureau of Health Professions, Department of Health and Human Services (Bracciano 1986). The results of the 3,076 counties studied revealed the ratio of occupational therapists to populations of 100,000 were as follows: 16.7% of the counties had more than 10 therapists, 15.3% had between 5 and 10 therapists and 12% had 1 to 4 therapists. However, the most significant finding was 56% of the counties had no occupational therapists. It was reported that as the population of an area increased, so did the concentration of occupational therapists. 1,724 (76.9%) of the 3,076 counties in the study which were without occupational therapists, were located in rural areas.

(Helge 1981) noted many special education professionals have left the rural settings for urban areas, as full implementation of PL94-142 has created job openings. This is compatible with the trend that occupational therapists tend to practice in larger population centers, located in predominately urban areas, where there are established occupational therapy programs, (Bracciano 1986).

Therapists need to have an understanding of rural school systems, educational aims, philosophy, and the structure of the system itself in order to appropriately integrate their services, (Regan, 1982). Rural preservice training has also been identified as a high priority need by the Council on Exceptional Children, and the National Education Association, (Helge 1981). A survey of occupational therapy personnel working in both urban and rural pediatric settings was conducted in four Midwestern states: Kansas, Missouri, Iowa, and Nebraska to determine what practicing therapists saw as needs for preservice training

(Dunn and Gray, 1988). The areas most frequently indicated for preservice training concentration across the rural and urban groups included knowledge about the basic sciences, child development, communication, evaluation and interpretation skills. The process of developing an Individual Education Plan, and educational philosophy and aims was also felt to be a necessity. This emphasizes the need currently practicing pediatric therapists feel there is for educationally related knowledge to be gained prior to accepting a position in the school system.

The urban and rural therapists participating in the 1987 survey also noted a variety of other areas of concern for occupational therapists working in educational settings. Although some similarities were noted in their responses, the most frequently sited concerns for rural therapists were: size of caseload, availability of space to work in, developing more effective consultation skills, having assess and resources for continuing education opportunities, prioritizing therapy time for students on caseload and determing criteria for amount and type of service. It was found that on the average rural therapists served 50% more schools, 25% more students on caseload, and traveled four times more miles per week than did urban therapists. These figures reemphasize the unique issues facing rural-based service personnel. Peganoff and Sprague (1987) reported similar needs and concerns in their report.

In order to better prepare preservice occupational therapy students to accept positions in rural school systems, students at the University of Kansas Medical Center have been participating in the M.O.R.E. project. They have participated in learning opportunities that have been designed to make them better prepared to deal with rural education needs. Questionnaires and tests have been used to identify status of knowledge and changes that occur as students acquire more information about the educational enviornment. This paper reports on one of the measures used, the S.B.S. Inventory of Teacher Social Behavior Standards and Expectations, developed by Walker and Rankin (1980). This questionnaire describes appropriate or adaptive classrcom behaviors and asks the repondent to classify the behaviors as critical, desirable or unimportant to classroom functioning. It was felt that students must first have an awareness of classroom needs and demands before additional competencies could be addressed.

Methods

Population:

Students enrolled in the Occupational Therapy Curriculum at the University of Kansas Medical Center in Kansas City, Kansas were asked to participate in the data collection by responding to questionnaires. Although four classes have currently participated at some level thus far data from one of the classes is compared in this study. The Fall 88 class (N=58) being reported here participated in the project during their second (Fall 87) and fourth semester of study. They received pilot materials covering only portions of the rural education needs identified by practicing therapists. Their questionnaire data served as pre and post test data for the pilot materials.

Instruments/Materials:

The occupational therapy students were asked to complete The SBS Inventory of Teacher Social Behavior Standards and Expectations (SBS) (Walker and Rankin, 1980). This questionnaire is designed to determine respondent's attitudes and expectations of children's classroom and social behavior, in general. For Part I respondents are asked to rate 56 descriptions of adaptive, appropriate classroom behaviors, as either Critical, Desirable, or Unimportant to classroom function. It is felt that the demands placed on handicapped children when they are in regular classrooms include not only academic, but also social and interactive expectations (Walker, McConnell & Clark, 1983). Occupational therapists who work in schools must have a realistic understanding of these expectation in order to facilitate integrated educational opportunities.

Procedures:

The occupational therapy students were asked to complete the SBS during a one-hour time period. The students completed the SBS pre test in the Fall of 1987 and the SBS post test in the Fall of 1988. Students were given an abstract outlining the M.O.R.E. project and a letter stating their participation was requested but not mandatory. Each student was given the questionnaire to complete. As the surveys were completed and returned, each student indicated their code number on a master list developed for longitudinal comparison purposes; project staff did not have access to the student's names when analyzing data.

Responses from each questionnaire were tabulated, and frequency of responses in each category was analyzed. The percent of occurrence of each responses was used as the point of comparison for the group.

Results

Of the 58 occupational therapy students, 39 students (67%) com-

pleted the pretest questionnaire. 19 students (33%) of the students in this class chose not to participate. Seventeen occupational therapy students (32%) of 53 possible, chose to participate in post testing. Responses were analyzed first by grouping items into four content areas: Cooperation with Teacher and Peers (Cooperation), Independent Work Skills (Independence), Effective Communication Skills (Communication), and Ability to Attend (Attention). Communication items address issues such as speaking clearly and appropriately. Independence addresses work/study/time management behaviors. Cooperation - following rules, sharing materials, participating with group processes, and Attention listening and concentration skills. The percentage of responses to items on the SBS in these groupings is presented in graph 1-4. Table 1 contains examples for each grouping. In each case, students increased the number of "Critical" adaptive behaviors and decreased the number of "Unimportant" adaptive behaviors for classroom functioning. The "Desirable" category remained stable across two groupings (Communication and Independence), increased slightly in one (Attention) and decreased in the other (Cooperation). Graph 5 shows the changes that occurred in five specific items which had greater than 20% shifts in ratings from the pretest to the post test.

Discussion:

Pilot teaching activities demonstrated some successful outcomes. In all the groupings chosen, students decreased their "Unimportant" ratings. None of the adaptive behaviors described on the SBS should be rated unimportant, as these behaviors are desirable for regular classroom instruction. This is important for occupational therapy students to realize before accepting a position as a rural-based school therapist because many children with handicaps will be integrated into regular classrooms. Understanding which behaviors are expected in the classroom will increase the therapists' ability to collaborate on common goals with educational team members. For example, a child who has difficulty organizing their worksheets and school materials (a "Desirable", but not "Critical" behavior) may benefit from an occupational therapy consultation. The teacher and therapists can implement some strategies to help this child such as making a "map" of where materials are placed in their desk, placing a basket in the classroom for papers to be completed, and one for already completed papers. Allowing this child to complete smaller portions of school work at one time may be another strategy which could be effective. It is imperative that the occupational therapy students begin to think in terms of the educational model for them to work effectively in the rural school systems.

The increase in "Critical" ratings may reflect the student's responses to their newly acquired knowledge about children and classrooms, perhaps causing them to overrate certain behaviors as critical. Students may now be rating a child's ability to sit up straight in his seat as "Critical" because of the pre-survey training emphasis placed on proper positioning to enhance movement in a physically handicapped

child. Development of professional skills such as interpersonal communications are also reinforced with the occupational therapy students. The OT students, recognizing the importance of cooperation and communication skills in their own personal development, maybe generalizing that these skills are "critical" for all persons in the role of student, including children in public schools. These responses point out several implications for student training. First, students need to become more aware that "ideal" classroom behaviors are not always critical, and children can still be taught without a perfect set of behaviors. Furthermore, they had to become aware that educational personnel have the responsibility to teach these children even if all adaptive behaviors are not intact. In fact, therapy students need to recognize that the occupational therapist plays a key role in collaborating with classroom teachers to design strategies to accommodate maladaptive behaviors.

Recommendations:

The following recommendations for preservice training of occupational therapy students were identified from this study. First students need a better understanding of which classroom behaviors are considered desirable, which are critical, and the types of adaptations that can be made when a less than "perfect" pattern of behavior exists. This knowledge provides a basis for providing therapy in the schools, which includes using the collaborative consultative model with children who do not display appropriate classroom behaviors. The occupational therapy student's abilities to be sensitive to the educational personnel's expectations and goals in teaching these children will increase their own effectiveness.

Handouts are being developed and incorporated into the occupational therapy students curriculum. These address intervention techniques, characteristics of specific diagnoses, classroom performance expectations, and adapting to a rural school system.

Occupational therapy continues to be a valued resource in public education. Identifying and addressing specific needs will better help to prepare new graduates to serve in rural educational systems. Not only will other professionals benefit from the outcomes but also those for whom the services are being delivered: the children with special needs and their families.

REFERENCES

Braccino, A. (1986). Occupational therapy's role in rural health: An opportunity for growth. Special Interest Section Newsletter, 9, 3.

Dunn, W. & Gray, B. (1988). Initial Findings: Managing Occupational Therapy in Rural Education. (Grant No. G008730057). Kansas City, Kansas: University of Kansas Medical Center.

Helge, D. (1981). Increasing preservice curriculum accountability to rural handicapped populations. National Rural Development Institute Western Washington, University.

Helge, D. (9184). The state of the Art of Rural Special Education. Exceptional Children, 50, 4: 294-305.

Peganoff, S.A., Sprague, J.T. (1987). Occupational therapy using a sensory integrative frame of reference: A model for rural communities: Sensory Integration Special Interest Section Newsletter, 10, 2.

Regan, N.N. (1982). The implementation of occupational therapy services in rural school systems. The American Journal of Occupational Therapy.

Walker, Hill M., Rankin, Richard (1980). The SBS Inventory of Teacher Social Behavior Standard and Expectations.

Walker, H., McConnell, S. & Clark, J. (In press). Social skills training in school settings: A model for the social integration of handicapped children into less restrictive settings. Childhood Disorders: Behavioral-Developmental Approaches. R.J. McMahon & R.D. Peters, Eds. New York: Brunner/Mazel.

Table I: Examples of SBS items groped into content areas

Cooperation with Teachers and Peers (Cooperation N = 13)

Child takes his/her turn.

Child cooperates with peers in group activity or situations.

Child is flexible and can adjust to different instructional situations, e.g. changes in routine, teachers, setting, etc.

Child improves academic or social behavior in response to teacher feedback.

Independant Work Skills (Independence N = 15)

Child uses free time appropriately.

Child has independent study skills, e.g. can work adequately with minimal teacher support, attempts to solve a problem with school work before asking for help.

Child resolves peer conflicts or problems adequately on his/her own without requesting teacher assistance.

Child completes tasks within prescribed time limits.

Effective Communication Skills (Communication N = 18)

Child listens while other children are speaking, e.g. as in circle or sharing time.

Child answers or attempts to answer a question when called on by the teacher.

Child speaks to others in a tone of voice appropriate to the situation.

Child questions rules, directions, or instructions that are not clear to her/him.

Ability to Attend (Attention N = 6)

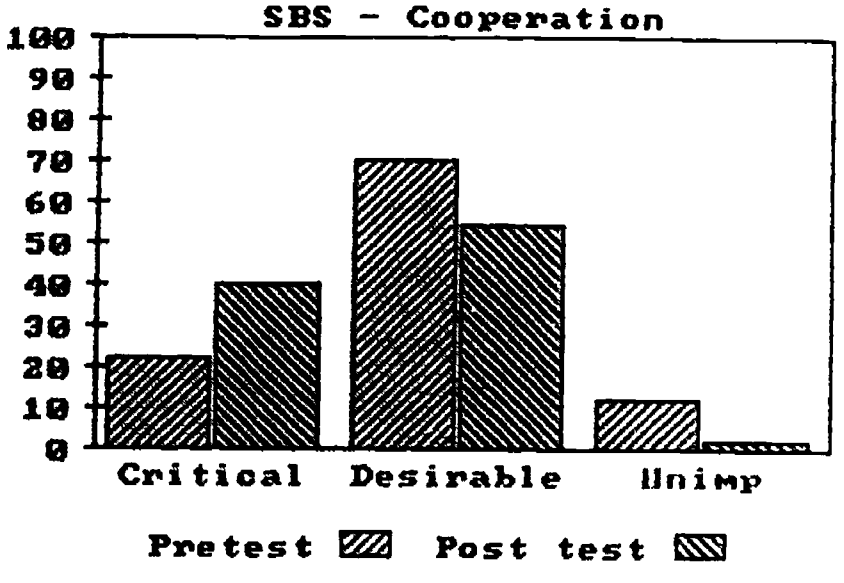
Child responds to requests and directions promptly.

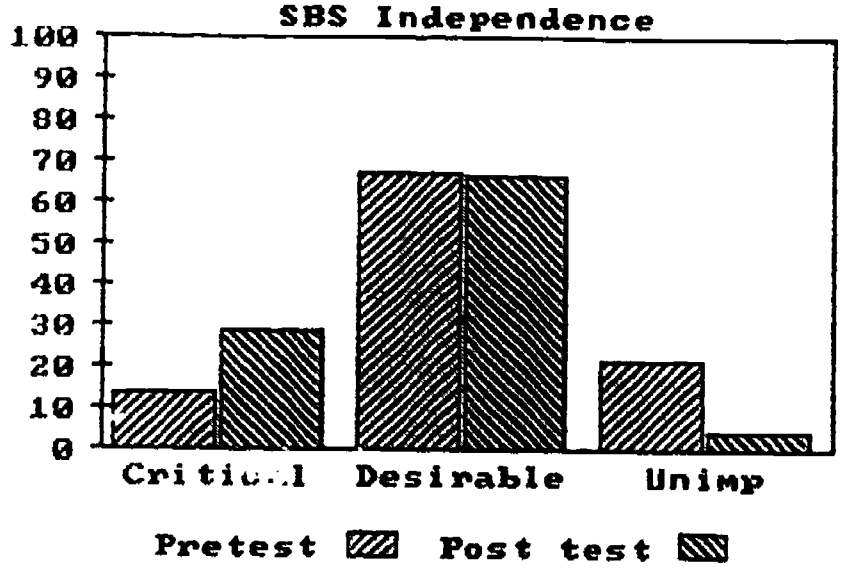
Child complies with teacher commands.

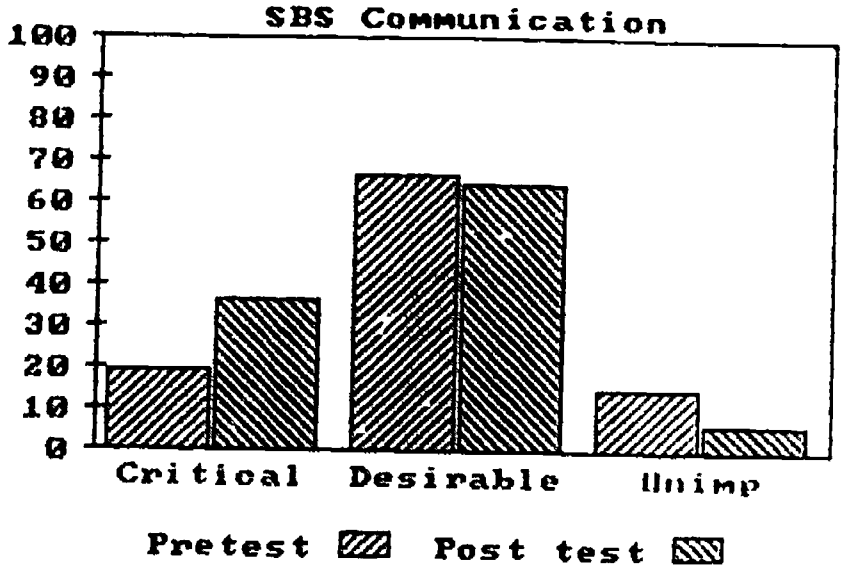
Child attends consistently to assigned tasks.

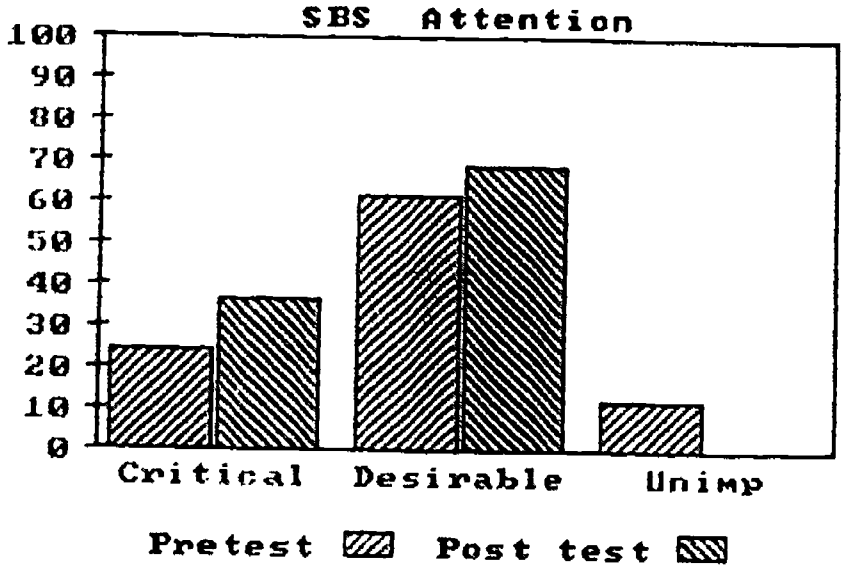
Child ignores the distractions or interruptions of other students during academic activities.

Graph 1 - 4
SBS Inventory: Teacher Expectations
Percentage of Response

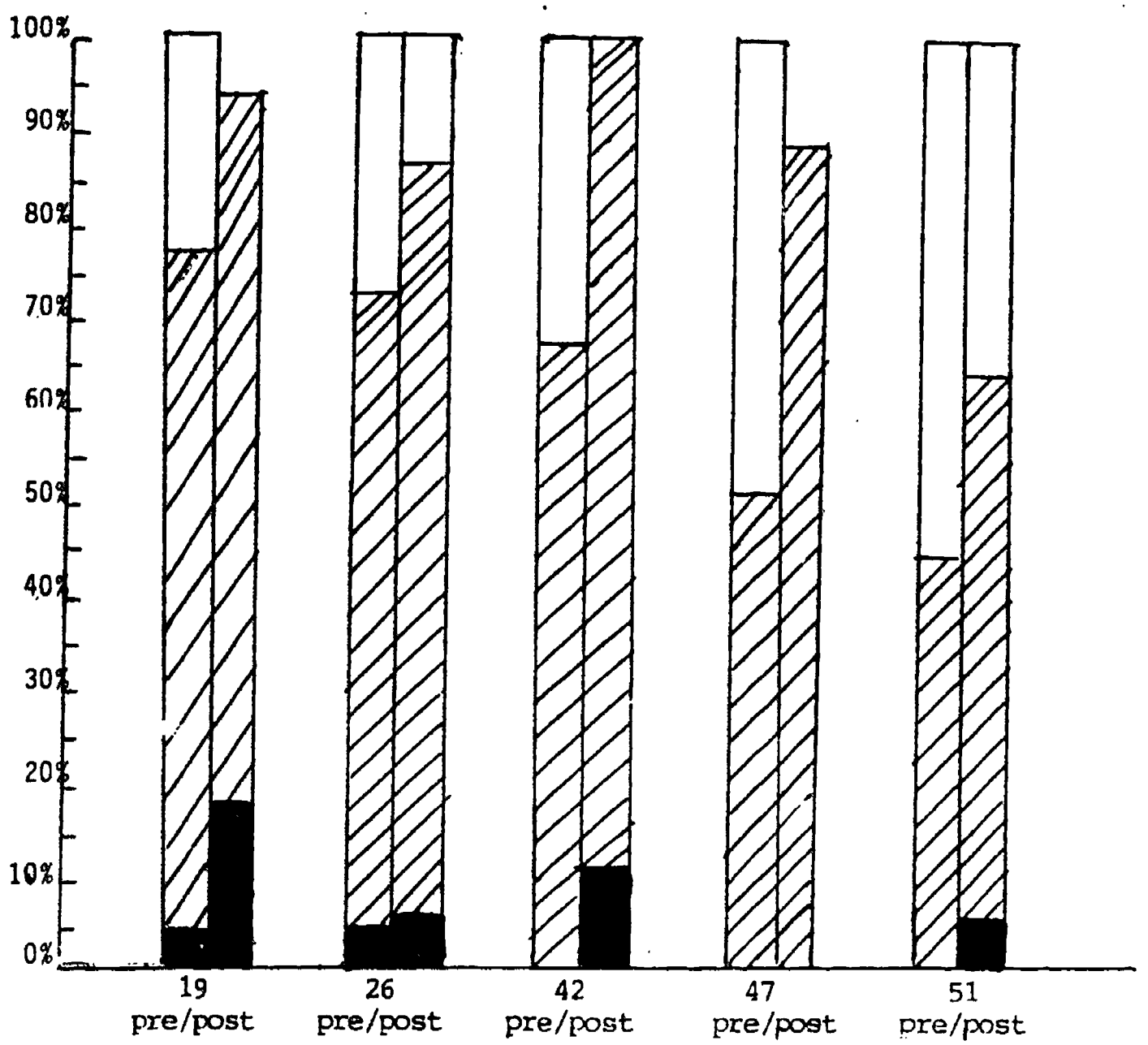








Graph 5 : Comparison among pre and post test occupational therapy students on selected items of the SBS Inventory of Teacher Social Behavior Standards and Expectations.



Critical Desirable Unimportant

19. Child can work on projects in class with another student.
26. Child resolves peer conflicts or problem adequately on his/her own without requesting teacher assistance.
42. Child completes tasks within prescribed time limits.
47. Child initiates conversation with peers in informal situation.
51. Child sits up straight in seat during classroom instruction.

Pre = pretest Post = post test.

Carol S. Eagen
Supervisor
BOCES Preschool Program
Projects Building
Yorktown Heights, New York 10598

Amy E. Albers Ed.D
Training Coordinator
BOCES Preschool Program
Projects Building
Yorktown Heights, New York 10598

COMMUNICATIONS EXERCISE

Within all classrooms, school districts, programs and work situations, effective communication skills are essential to insure that all members are working toward the same goal.

Within such systems, the amount and frequency of information passed along stated or implied lines of communication (e.g., Superintendent to Principal to Teacher) may effect the success or failure of a particular goal.

This workshop will actively involve participants in a communication exercise designed to increase awareness of the assumptions people make in this structured situation. What people choose to reveal of what they know, how they respond to requests for information and how they feel when they have little information are some of the questions that this exercise will raise. Participants will be encouraged to share their experiences during this exercise and to draw parallels to their everyday work situations.

TEAM BUILDING AND TRANDISCIPLINARY PROCESS BIBLIOGRAPHY

Albers, A. & Eagen, C. (1988). Crossing the boundaries: A transdisciplinary approach to migrant student eduction. Rural Special Education Quarterly, 9(1), 9-12.

American Association of University Affiliated Programs for the Developmentally Disabled, Developing a community team. Washington, DC.

Baker, R.R. (1980). Manual: Planning for effective team functioning. Houston, TX: Training and Measurement Systems Corporation.

Bailey, D. (1984). A triaxial model of the interdisciplinary team and group process. Exceptional Children, 51(1), 17-25.

Blazek, M.J. (1982). Transdisciplinary team approach: A rural alternative. Human Services in the Rural Environment, 7, 27-31.

Bricker, D. (1977). Educational synthesizer. In M.A. Thomas (Ed.), Hey! Don't Forget about me: Education's investment in the severely, profoundly and multiply handicapped. Reston, Virginia: Council for Exceptional Children.

Bucholz, S. & Roth, T. (1987). Creating the high performance team. NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Connor, F.P., Williamson, G.C., & Siepp, J.M. (1978). Program guide for infants and toddlers with neuromotor and other developmental disabilities. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University.

Deutch, M. (1960). The effects of cooperation and competition upon group process. In D. Cartwright & A. Zander (Eds.). Group dynamics: Research & theory. Evanston, IL: Row Peterson & Co.

Dyer, W.G. (1988, February). From boardrooms to babies: Building teams that work. Workshop presented at the Early Intervention Winter Institute, Williamsburg, VA.

Dyer, W.G. (1987). Team building: Issues and alternatives. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing.

Earley, L.C. & Rutledge, P.B. (1980). A nine-step problem-solving model. In J.E. Jones & J.W. Pfeiffer (Eds.). The 1980 annual for group facilitators. San Diego, CA: University Associates.

Eddy, W.B. (1985). The manager and the working group. NY: Praeger Publishers.

Fay, P.P. & Doyle, A.G. (1982). Stages of group development. In J.E. Jones & J.W. Pfeiffer (Eds.). The 1982 annual for facilitators, trainers, and consultants. San Diego, CA: University Associates.

Fischer, B.A. (1980). Small group decision making. NY: MaGraw-Hill Book Company.

Fisher, W. et al. (1985). Integrating developmental, pharmacologic, and psychological diagnosis and management through the

transdisciplinary team process. Rehabilitation Literature, 46, 268-271.

Ford, D. & Nemiroff, P. (1975). Applied group problem-solving: The nominal group technique. In J.E. Jones & J.W. Pfeiffer (Eds.). The 1975 annual handbook for group facilitators. San Diego, CA: University Associates.

Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L., Benowitz, S., & Barringer, K. (1987). Norm-referenced tests: Are they valid for use with handicapped students? Exceptional Children, 54(3), 263-271.

Gorman, H.G. & Baker, H.K. (1978). Brainstorming your way to problem-solving ideas. Personnel Journal, 57(8), 438-440,454,456.

Guzzo, R.A. (Ed.). (1982). Improving group decision making in organizations. NY: Academic Press.

Hart, V. (1977). The use of many disciplines with the severely and profoundly handicapped. In E. Sontag, J. Smith, & N. Certo (Eds.), Educational programming for the severely and profoundly handicapped. Reston, Virginia: Division on Mental Retardation of the Council for Exceptional Children.

Hastings, C., Bixby, P., & Chaudhry-Lawton, R. (1986). The superteam solution. Aldershot, England: Gower Publishing Co.

Hutchinson, D.A. (1974). A model for transdisciplinary staff development. In A nationally organized collaborative program for the provision of comprehensive services to atypical infants and their families. (Technical report No. 8) NY: United Cerebral Palsy Associations.

Hutchinson, D.J. & Haynes, U. (1977). Transdisciplinary: A team approach to the delivery of services to the developmentally disabled. NJ: Charles B. Slack, Inc.

Johnson, D.W. & Johnson, F.P. (1982). Joining together: Group theory and group skills (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Karp, H.B. (1983). The art of creative fighting. In J. Jones & J. Pfeiffer (Eds.). The 1983 annual for facilitators, trainers, and consultants. Sa Diego, CA: University Associates.

Loevner, M., Kuch, A., & Warren, L. (1977). Transdisciplinary approach with the severely involved cerebral palsied child. Paper presented at A.A.E.S.P.H. Conference, San Francisco.

McCormick, L., Cooper, M., & Goldman, R. (1979). Training teachers to maximize instructional time provided to severely and profoundly handicapped children. A.A.E.S.P.H Review, 4, 301-310.

McCormick, L.P., & Goldman, R. (1979). The transdisciplinary model: Implications for service delivery and personnel preparation for the severely and profoundly handicapped. A.A.E.S.P.H. Review, 2, 152-161.

Milstein, M.M. (1983). Toward more effective meetings. In J. Jones & J. Pfeiffer (Eds.). The 1983 annual for facilitators, trainers, and consultants. San Diego, CA: University Associates.

Perske, S. & Smith, M. (1977). Interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary teamwork. In R. Purkey and J. Smith (Eds.), Beyond the ordinary: Towards the development of standard-criteria. Seattle, Washington: The American Association for the Education of the Severely/ Profoundly Handicapped.

Reilly, A. & Jones, J. (1974). Teambuilding. In J. Jones & J. Pfeiffer (Eds.). The 1974 annual for group facilitators. San Diego, CA: University Associates.

Ruben, B. & Budd, R. (1975). Human communication handbook: Simulations and games: Volume 1. NJ: Hayden Book Company, Inc.

Shonk, J.H. (1982). Working in teams: A practical manual for improving work groups. NY: AMACOM.

Stech, E. & Ratliffe, S.A. (1977). Working in groups: A communication manual for leaders and participants in task-oriented groups. Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company.

Sternat, J., Messina, R., Nietupski, J., Lyon, S. & Brown, L. (1977). Occupational and physical therapy services for severely handicapped students toward a naturalized public school service delivery model. In E. Sontag, J. Smith and N. Certo (Eds), Educational programming for the severely and profoundly handicapped. Reston, Virginia: Division on Mental Retardation of the Council for Exceptional Children.

Stile, S.W. & Olson, E.H. (1980). The transdisciplinary model: An alternative approach for meeting the needs of children in early childhood education programs for the handicapped. Paper presented to Department of Educational Specialties, New Mexico University, Las Cruces.

Tjosvold, D. (1986). Working together to get things done: Managing for organizational productivity. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Tuckman, B.W. (1965). Development sequence in small groups. Psychology Bulletin, 63(6), 284-399.

Wolff, J., (1987). 6 heads are better than 1: Approach to classroom a transdisciplinary programming for the emotionally disturbed child. Perceptions. New York.

Wood, J.T. (1977). Constructive conflict in discusssions: Learning to manage disagreements effectively. In J. Jones & J. Pfeiffer (Eds.). The 1977 annual handbook for group facilitators. San Diego, CA: University Associates.

Woodcock, M. & Francis, D. (1981). Organization development through teambuilding. NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Woodruff, G. (1980). Transdisciplinary approach for preschool children and parents. The Exceptional Parent, 10, 13-16.

Nathan Farber, Director
ECPC Program
9240 S.W. 124 Street
Miami, Florida 33176-5161
(305) 251-5445

THE EARLY CHILDHOOD PREVENTIVE CURRICULUM (ECPC)

Criterion assessment? Criterion teaching? What is that all about? The Early Childhood Preventive Curriculum (ECPC) was developed to provide teachers with specific information at the beginning of first grade about the child's pre-reading perceptual skills to enable them more specifically and easily meet children's learning needs. That is what ECPC criterion assessment/instruction is all about at the beginning of first grade; helping at-risk children.

What causes most failure and retention in first grade? The failure of the child to learn to read, that's what! Even when the teacher is skilled enough to see the beginnings of failure in November or December of the first year, it is usually a case of too little knowledge and understanding too late to prevent a learning disability.

Yes, that's right...most learning disabilities are created! caused by the teacher who is unable to recognize or do anything about the incipient,impending failure of the child to learn to read at the beginning of first grade. Many LD cases can be prevented if potential disabled learner needs can be identified before the problems become severe—with all the secondary emotional factors that contribute to failure and inability to progress in school.

Many children who are subsequently labelled LD are children who came to first grade without their necessary prereading perceptual skills developed to enable them to master the beginning reading process. ECPC helps the teacher to identify the child's prereading perceptual skills and needs and to be able to translate those needs into instructional strategies for positive reinforcement of effective teaching-learning and success in breaking the code of reading, thus dispelling the at-risk designation.

Here's how the ECPC system works. The teacher administers a series of assessments with the use and aid of a Teacher Guide to all children in the first week of the school year. The assessments, composed of 12 pages, are pencil and paper responses to items covering four areas of prereading perceptual skills. They are: visual perception, auditory perception, visual-auditory sequencing and memory, and perceptual-motor. Forty performance objectives covered in the skills domain range from simple visual perception/discrimination such as the ability of a child to visually identify a geometric figure from several others to visual identification of a word represented by a picture, as follows:





At the perceptual motor task level a child is asked to connect a series of dots with a drawn line and to copy words and a sentence. Auditory and sequencing and memory items also range from simple to complex—at the prereading level.

After scoring the results of the assessments, the teacher groups her children for beginning reading on the basis of prereading perceptual skills development. All children are then taught beginning reading (with whatever basal reading series the teacher normally uses) at the same time she prescribes for their prereading perceptual skills needs - not considered deficits since the children have not yet learned or been taught the skill.

Even when experienced teachers sense or know what areas or levels of need their children have at the prereading level, they are often at a loss as to when and what to have the children do to improve the needed skill. ECPC helps the teacher know what to have the children do and when to do it. A Catalogue of Instructional Resources, coded to the assessment objectives, lists all the commercial materials available which provide meaningful activities for children who need to learn that task. For example, when a child cannot discern a shape (triangle) from non triangle, in the example above, the teacher turns to appropriate lists of materials which will meet the child's learning needs and chooses those activities which she feels will help the child learn the needed skill. Once the teacher codes the materials to the objectives she can readily translate a need into an instructional prescription--with need being ascertained by the above assessments.

In addition to the Catalogue as an instructional resource, a set of over 1000 masters, precoded to the assessments are available as well. A further resource is also available-a series of educational games which are easily made by the teacher. These provide further reinforcement activities in the prereading area. All the games are in a Games Guide which tells the teacher how to make and how to use it with children. Furthermore, the games are coded in the Catalogue so a teacher can prescribe a game to help children learn initial or final consonant sounds in pictures or medial vowel sounds.

To further facilitate learning and classroom management, a series of listening lessons with follow-up activities have been created to help children develop listening skills. Over 100 story tapes have been created with activities which help children develop language and cognitive skills. Several Listening Lessons Guides have been created which tell the teacher what she needs to know to facilitate this aspect of the program. The books and tapes are available from the program.

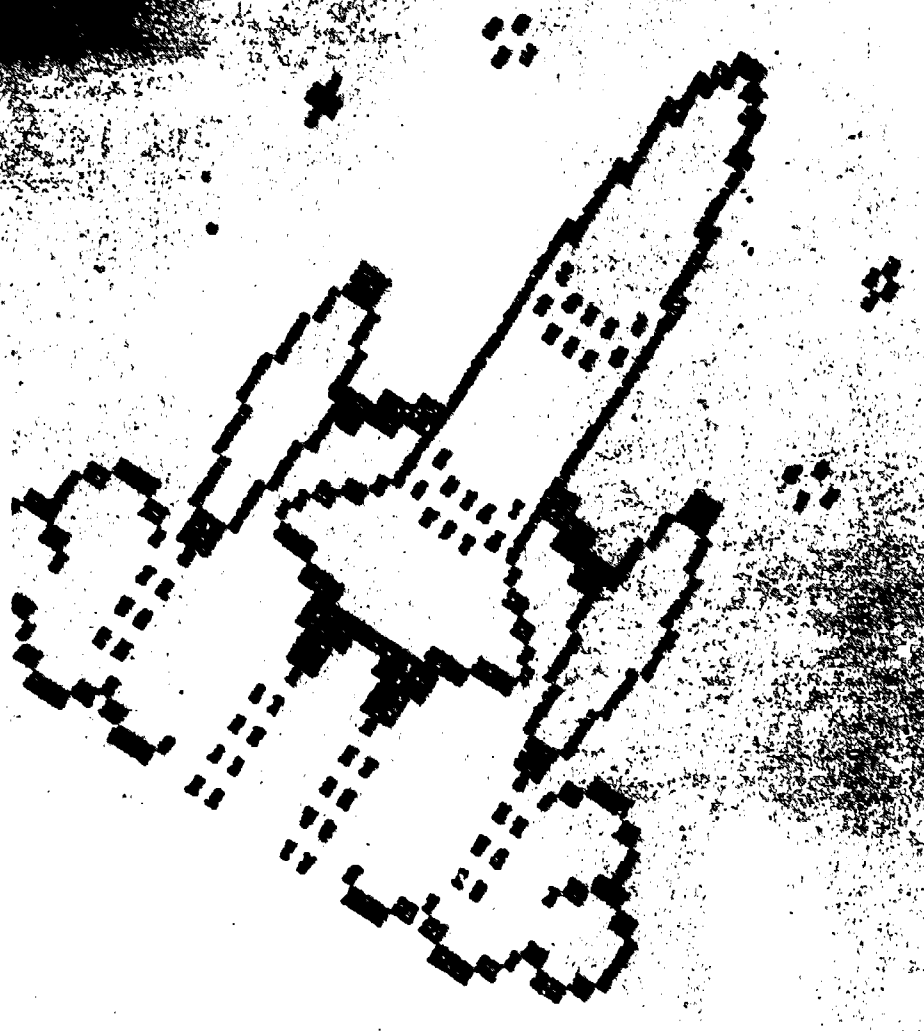
What, in effect, does the ECPC approach to diagnosis and instruction do for the teacher and children? For the teacher it provides specific information about the prereading peceptual skills and needs of the children prior to their experiencing failure in learning to read - a problem for all at risk youth. For children in at risk category it provides a strongly positive learning experience at success and need levels, reduces incidence of potential LD characteristics and at-risk status.

When at-risk children come to school without their "educational pumps being primed" they are not ready to learn in the conventional sense and manner. ECPC provides the key for teacher and student-enables the teacher to teach with precision and the student to learn in a meaningful, purposive positive manner and becomes a successful learner.

PAGES

348 — 364

HAVE BEEN
REMOVED FROM THIS
DOCUMENT



"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Terry Feick

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy

THE CHALLENGE OF THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

A RURAL PRESPECTIVE

NRSSC, March 8, 1989
Terry A. Feick
Donna K. Myers
Frances R. Tye
Washington C.H. City Schools
Washington Court House, Ohio

CE 051 227

WASHINGTON COURT HOUSE CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

The heritage that is the Washington C.H. City Schools began as a "subscription" school three years after the village of Washington Court House was laid out. It was in 1813 that Samuel Loofborrow coverted half of his double log cabin at the corner of Paint and Hinde Streets into a classroom supported by the parents of his pupils. The high school received its charter in 1875 and graduated its first class on June 13, 1876.

The oldest of the system's present eight buildings is Cherry Hill, built in 1910. The newest building, the high school, opened for classes in 1969. The long history of the school system has given it a solid foundation in a tradition of excellence. Over a century ago the course of study for the first classes included Latin, Greek, French, Logic, Mental and Moral Philosophy, and Trigonometry.

The philosophy of the Board of Education reflects a continued commitment to excellence, curriculum and instruction are the foremost concerns of the district. This concern is evidenced by over 75 years of membership in the North Central Accrediting Association. Graduation requires 18 units of credit, including four years of English. The district's eligibility policy for participation in extra-curricular activities is one of the most stringent in the nation. A complete program of vocational education is offered through our participation in the Great Oaks Joint Vocational School District.

The school district owns nine major educational facilities: Education Service Center, Washington Hish School, Washington Middle School, Eastside Elementary, Belle Aire Elementary, Rose Avenue Elementary, Cherry Hill Elementary, Fayette Progressive School, and the Gardner Park Sports Complex. An ambitious program of renovation and preservation has been undertaken in recent years. These projects included new roofs, replacement energy-efficient windows, and many interior improvements.

The Board of Education has maintained a continously strong fiscal position. Since the construction of the new high school facility in the mid-1960's, several operating levies have been passed by a good margin. The outstanding debt of the district is rapidly decreasing and will be gone by the end of the decade. A competitive salary schedule, considerably above the state minimums, has been maintained.

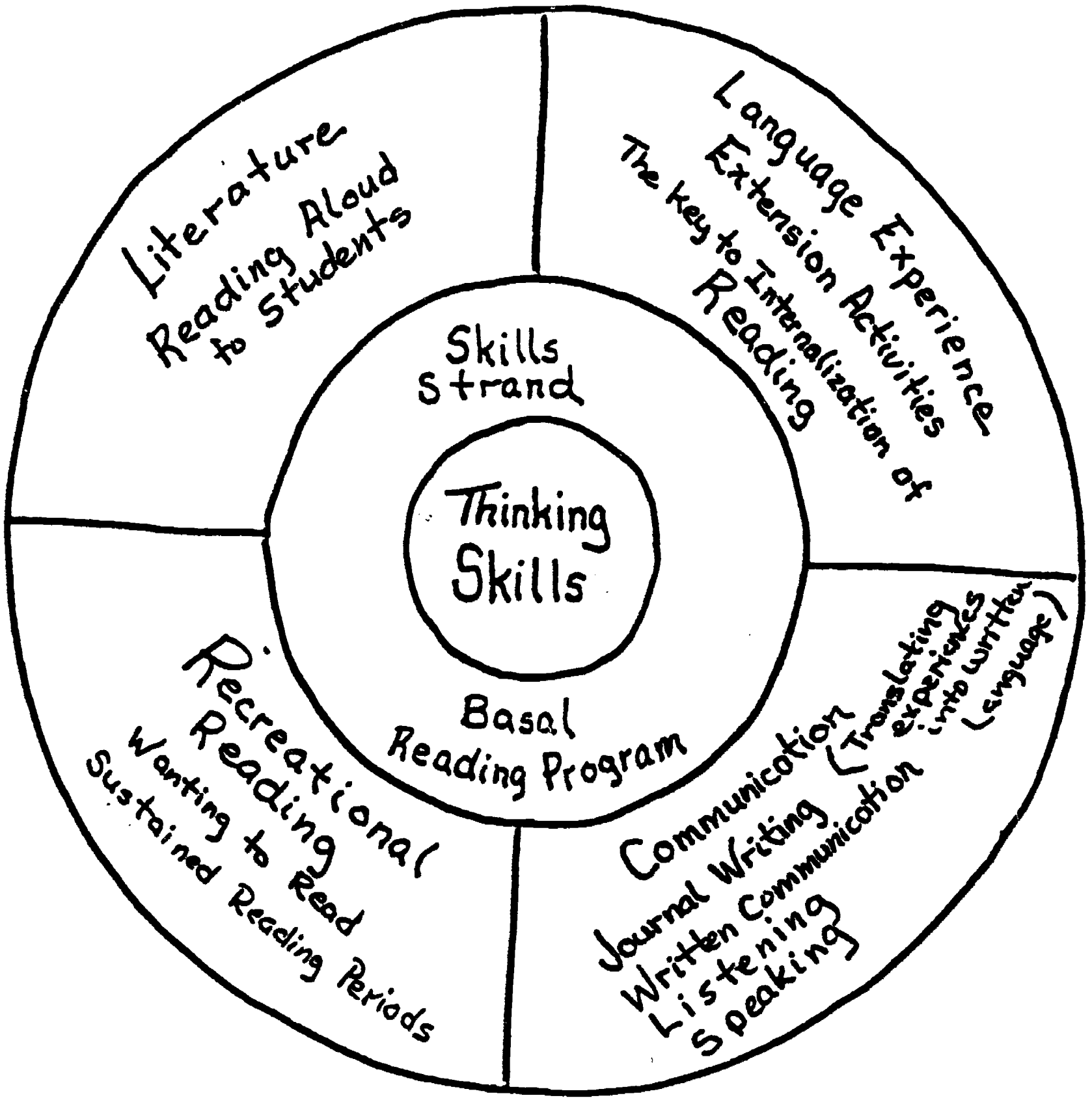
The district sponsors many special programs including: a program of gifted education, a community education program, a branch of Southern State Community College, staff development programs, and fifteen units of special education classrooms.

Competency based and outcome based curriculum programs are being developed and implemented from kindergarten through twelfth grade. The course of study for the district is reviewed on a five-year cycle and new materials purchased accordingly.

The future holds great promise of continued recognition for the district as an educational leader in such areas as academic standards and requirements as well as innovative programs and ambitious research.

WASHINGTON COURT HOUSE CITY SCHOOLS

READING COMPONENTS



READING IS THE TOTAL PROCESS OF INTEGRATING SEVERAL CRITICAL COMPONENTS. IT IS THE SUM OF MANY PARTS. THE BASAL READING PROGRAM EMPHASIZES TEACHING THE SKILLS NECESSARY TO READ INDEPENDENTLY FOR MEANING. OTHER COMPONENTS ARE NECESSARY TO PREPARE STUDENTS TO WANT TO READ AND TO APPRECIATE MANY MEDIA.

COURSE OF STUDY

COMPETENCY PROGRAM

PROGRAM OBJECTIVE	SUBJECT OBJECTIVE	ASSESSMENT	INTERVENTION	PUPIL PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVE	DISTRICTWIDE TEST
LITERATURE: Students listen to, discuss, view, compare, or criticize selected readings and films.	K-5 Students hear selections (from approved list-see appendix) read aloud daily by an adult. 6-8 and 9-12 Students respond in a variety of ways to what has been read to them or what they have read from the approved list. (see appendix)	1. Observation 2. Test(s) 3. Homework 4. Oral report 5. Seatwork * Use one or more of the above assessment techniques	1. Re-teach 2. Time on task 3. Grouping 4. Modifying materials 5. Tutoring 6. Parental 7. Learning modalities 8. Intervention teaching strategies 9. Building Level Assistance Team 10. Computer aided instruction * Use one or more of the above intervention techniques	K-5 Given a list of selections which have been read to the students by adults, the students will choose a selection and respond to it by creating individual or group products, projects, or experiences. 6-8 and 9-12 Given a list of selections which the students have read, the students will choose a selection and respond to it by creating individual or group products, projects, or experiences.	

COURSE OF STUDY

COMPETENCY PROGRAM

PROGRAM OBJECTIVE	SUBJECT OBJECTIVE	ASSESSMENT	INTERVENTION	PUPIL PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVE	DISTRICTWIDE TEST
RECREATIONAL READING: Students read for pleasure and information.	K-8 Students engage in sustained reading activities during scheduled class time. 9-12 Students engage in sustained reading as regularly scheduled course activities.	1. Observation 2. Test(s) 3. Homework 4. Oral report 5. Seatwork * Use one or more of the above assessment techniques	1. Re-teach 2. Time on task 3. Grouping 4. Modifying materials 5. Tutoring 6. Parental 7. Learning modalities 8. Intervention teaching strategies 9. Building Level Assistance Team 10. Computer aided instruction * Use one or more of the above intervention techniques	K-12 Given an opportunity to engage in sustained reading the student will read for a prescribed time.	

COURSE OF STUDY

COMPETENCY PROGRAM

PROGRAM OBJECTIVE	SUBJECT OBJECTIVE	ASSESSMENT	INTERVENTION	PUPIL PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVE	DISTRICTWIDE TEST
COMMUNICATIONS: Students respond to experiences through reading, writing, speaking, and listening.	**KDG** Students will generate words or parts of words using the sound letter associations from the list. **K-12** Students respond to written and oral language.	1. Observation 2. Test(s) 3. Homework 4. Oral report 5. Seatwork * Use one or more of the above assessment techniques	1. Re-teach 2. Time on task 3. Grouping 4. Modifying materials 5. Tutoring 6. Parental 7. Learning modalities 8. Intervention teaching strategies 9. Building Level Assistance Team 10. Computer aided instruction * Use one or more of the above intervention techniques	**K-12** Given an opportunity to share experiences, students will respond through journal writing, drama, music, general discussions, small group discussions, essays, and/or art.	

COURSE OF STUDY

COMPETENCY PROGRAM

PROGRAM OBJECTIVE	SUBJECT OBJECTIVE	ASSESSMENT	INTERVENTION	PUPIL PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVE	DISTRICTWIDE TEST
LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE: Students participate in a variety of language activities.	Students organize, synthesize, and make sense of their own experiences through listening, speaking, reading, and writing.	1. Observation 2. Test(s) 3. Homework 4. Oral report 5. Seatwork * Use one or more of the above assessment techniques	1. Re-teach 2. Time on task 3. Grouping 4. Modifying materials 5. Tutoring 6. Parental 7. Learning modalities 8. Intervention teaching strategies 9. Building Level Assistance Team 10. Computer aided instruction * Use one or more of the above intervention techniques	K-12 Given a problem, topic, or content area, students will develop and/or demonstrate understanding and communicate it effectively.	

COURSE OF STUDY

COMPETENCY PROGRAM

PROGRAM OBJECTIVE	SUBJECT OBJECTIVE	ASSESSMENT	INTERVENTION	PUPIL PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVE	DISTRICTWIDE TEST
SKILL DEVELOPMENT: Students will develop effective skills and processes as readers, writers, speakers, and listeners.	K-12 Students demonstrate mastery of skills at each level of the skills strand as presented in the last section of this course of study.	1. Observation 2. Test(s) 3. Homework 4. Oral report 5. Seatwork * Use one or more of the above assessment techniques	1. Re-teach 2. Time on task 3. Grouping 4. Modifying materials 5. Tutoring 6. Parental 7. Learning modalities 8. Intervention teaching strategies 9. Building Level Assistance Team 10. Computer aided instruction * Use one or more of the above intervention techniques	SEE SKILLS STRAND:	

Teacher Date Lesson Plans

	Student Reading	Read Aloud	Journaling
	Student Outcome: Student will demonstrate an interest in selecting literature and will read .ndepen-dently for a prescribed time.	Student Outcome: Student will hear a selection read aloud daily by an adult.	Student Outcome: Student will respond through journal writing to written and oral language.
MONDAY	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:
TUESDAY	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:
WEDNESDAY	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:
THURSDAY	Procedure: Text/Materials Evaluation:	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:
FRIDAY	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:	Procedure: Text/Materials: Evaluation:

9:15 - 9:50 Integrated Language Arts

Student Outcome(SO):

___ Students respond to written and oral language through journal writing, drama, music, general discussions, small group discussions, essays, art, and/or projects.
___ Students organize, synthesize, and make sense of their own experiences through listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
___ Students will engage in the writing process using the designated steps; e.g. pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing, publication.
___ Students will communicate knowledge of designated topic/content:

Procedures(P):

Materials(M):

Evaluation(E):

___ Given an opportunity to share experiences, students will respond through journal writing, drama, music, general discussions, small group discussions, essays, art, and/or projects.
___ Given a problem, topic, or content area, students will develop and/or demonstrate understanding and communicate it effectively.
___ Given an opportunity students write a passage using the writing process which will be evaluated according to the Developmental List for Writing.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Anderson, Richard (ed.) Becoming a Nation of Readers Champaign Ill. University of Ill. 1984.

Carbo, Marie "What Reading Tests Should Measure to Increase Literacy in the U.S.", News Notes and Quotes Newsletter of Phi Delta Kappa 33; 1: 8-11.

Downhower, Sarah L. "A Principal's Guide To Reading Terminology" Principal 68. 3 January 1989.

Gersten, Russell and Domino, Joseph "Teaching Literature to At Risk Students" Educational Leadership 46, 5: 53-57.

Goodman, Kenneth et. al. Report Card on Basal Readers, Katonah, N.Y. Richard Owen Pub. 1988.

Kline, Lloyd "Reading: Whole Language Development, Renewed Focus on Literature Spur Change", ASCD Update, June 1988.

Little Soldier, Lee "Language Learning of Native American Students", Educational Leadership 46, 5: 74-75.

McConaghy, Tom "Canada: A Leader in Whole Language Instruction" Kappan, Dec. 1988, 336-37.

O'Neil, John, "Whole Language: New View of Literacy Gains Influence" ASCD Update, Jan. 1989.

Reading Today, Bi-monthly Newspaper, International Reading Assoc., Newark, Delaware.

What Works, U.S. Dept. of Education, Washington D.C., 1988

A READING - WRITING CLASSROOM

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Anderson, Richard (Ed.) Becoming a Nation of Readers, Champain, Illinois; University of Illinois, 1984.

Atwell, Nancie, In The Middle, Upper Montclair, New Jersey; Boynton/Cook, 1987.

Barton, Bob, Tell Me Another, Portsmouth, New Hampshire, Heinemann, 1986.

Bracken, Bruce A. and Myers, Donna K. Bracken Concept Development Program, San Antonio, Texas. The Psychological Corp. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1986.

Butler, Andrea and Turbill, Jan. Towards a Reading-Writing Classroom, Portsmouth New Hampshire; Heinemann, 1984.

Butler, Dorothy and Clay, Marie. Reading Begins at Home, Exeter, New Hampshire; Heinemann, 1979.

Calkins, Lucy McCormick. The Art of Teaching Writing, Portsmouth, New Hampshire; Heinemann, 1963.

Calkins, Lucy McCormick. Lessons From a Child,Portsmouth, New Hampshire; Heinemann, 1963.

Chenfield, Illimi Brodsky. Teaching Language Arts Creatively, New York; Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1987.

Clay, Marie. What Did I Write, Exeter, New Hampshire; Heinemann, 1975.

Cullinan, Bernice E. Children's Literature in The Reading Program, Newark, Delaware; International Reading Association, 1987.

Fulwiler, Toby, Teaching With Writing, Upper Montclair, N.J.; Boynton/Cook, 1987.

Goodman, Ken. What's Whole in Whole Language, Portsmouth, New Hampshire; Heinemann, 1986.

Graves, Donald H. Writing: Teachers and Children at Work, Portsmouth, New Hampshire; Heinemann, 1983.

Hansen, Jane. When Writers Read, Portsmouth, New Hampshire; Heinemann, 1987.

Hansen, Jane, Newkirk, Tom, and Graves, Donald M. Breaking Ground: Teachers Relate Reading and Writing in the Elementary School, Portsmouth, New Hampshire; Heinemann, 1985.

Harste, Jerome, Woodward, Virginia and Burke, Carolyn. Language Stories and Literacy Lessons, Portsmouth, New Hampshire; Heinemann, 1984.

Huck, Charlotte S. Children's Literature in the Elementary School. Fourth Edition. New York; Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1987.

McCracken, Marlene and McCracken, Robert. Reading, Writing and Language, Winnipeg, Canada; Peguis 1979.

Mr. Terry Feick
Mrs. Frances Tye
Mrs. Donna Myers
Washington Court House City Schools
P.O. Box 520
Washington Court House, Ohio 43160

LITERACY - THE CHALLENGE OF THE TWENTY FIRST CENTURY: A RURAL COMMUNITY ADOPTS A LITERATURE BASED LANGUAGE ARTS PROGRAM

This session demonstrates a language arts program that effectively teaches children, grades K-12 in both regular and special education classes to think, read, write, speak and listen. The program evolved in the Washington Court House, Ohio City Schools over a five year period culminating in the adoption of a literature based language arts program. During this time teachers in all areas were becoming increasingly aware that although traditional methods of reading instruction taught many children to read, few children read for pleasure. Remedial reading programs met the immediate needs of large numbers of children but without long term results. Special education classrooms frequently addressed the special needs of handicapped children with variations of the same old skill and drill approach. Administrators struggled with a disproportionate number of retentions and requests for retentions.

Children from rural backgrounds such as Washington C. H., who bring to school a rich culture centered personal knowledge, struggle with the often unfamiliar language and the settings in many of the basal reader selections.

The search began for a more effective approach to enrich the education of children who not only can read but do read. Literature became our central focus. The outcome of this approach produces students who are able to apply the knowledge they gain in the 1990's to life long learning in the 21st century.

Our district began the promotion of this philosophy by administrative awareness and encouragement of innovative instructional practices,

on-going inservice and encouraging the sharing of ideas and teaching techniques. Board of education support is evidenced by partial payment to teachers for graduate work and financial support for conference attendance. Key educators opened their classrooms to interested colleagues. Professional libraries were provided with periodicals and reprints from current trends and research.

Literature is the central focus of the reading program while the basal is utilized primarily for skill development. Written language involves both reading and writing. The courses of study in both Reading, English, and Written Composition reflect the holistic approach. (See Appendix)

Literature, language experience, recreational reading, communications and skill development are the components of the reading course of study, while composition is the primary thrust for written language. Usage skills are addressed in both oral and written language across the curriculum in every classroom.

Reading, writing, speaking, listening, and thinking are interwoven. To isolate these into bits and parts of information refutes what we know concerning how children learn from whole to parts and back to whole. School language requirements often are different from the language of the home or community and often confuse and frustrate children.

The rich knowledge and experience that a rural child brings to the classroom is rarely reflected in basal stories.

We begin with books! Teachers and students read aloud in kindergarten and first grade six to eight times per day. This practice of reading aloud to students follows a continuum K-12.

Nursery rhymes, poems, rhythms and songs are written on large charts

and the familiar patterns are rehearsed. Rehearsed is defined as students following the familiar words. We interact with the print in our environment--with the signs and messages that are important to daily functioning. Daily journals are kept in all grades using experiences, feelings, ideas, and stories that are important and personal. Beginning stories and beginning journals are often picture representations and scribble writing. Soon random letters and numbers fade and appropriate consonents appear as the child's sound system matures. Children learn to read in stages similar to the way they learn to speak. They develop the strategies for spelling under these same non-threatening conditions. Inventive spelling is encouraged. Patterns of correct spelling will improve with language experiences, not through memorization for a test on Friday.

The springboard for personal sentences may include making a craft, a cooking exercise, a field trip to the corner market, a pet visiting the classroom, a film, a shared book, or school assembly. These experiences are translated into written form which can be dictated and viewed, cut apart and analyzed. The mugs - mechanics, usage, grammar, and spelling are modeled. Teachable moments occur when a child experiences a need for a specific form. Correct usage grows through awareness and practice of patterns seen and heard in the literature in which the children are immersed. Skills become internalized.

Rehearsal reading - a term for the practice of reading done by a child when he tells his version of a familiar book. This leads to word recognition as the child brings meaning to the printed word. Books may be read and reread until the language forms of literature are ingrained and show up in written and spoken language. Shared sustained reading or quiet

reading for recreation is a required part of our daily routine. Basal reading is used as needed for skill development. Reading involves READING. A student must be given many opportunities to read for pleasure and information, in order to master the reading process.

These practices continue and are enhanced as the students complete the K-12 continuum. Teachers read aloud daily. Written composition begins to grow in length and substance. Editing skills are developed by conferencing with teachers and peers. This technique helps a student target specific difficulties that arise. As the student needs a skill it is addressed and instructed. As the young author becomes more skilled, voice and expanded vocabulary develop.

High school teachers are reporting positive outcomes of this approach. Improvement in student writing skills is evidenced at that level. Teachers report students reading more for recreation with increased comprehension. Middle school language arts teachers use multiple copies of paperback novels with their students, selections reflect a thematic approach. A high school history teacher uses historical novels of the era being studied. This helps students relate to the social environment of the period.

Reading becomes life's conscious search for meaning.

During the presentation an administrator will explain the philosophy and mechanics of the program and the population which provided impetus. Aspects of curriculum design, state standards, competency based education requirements and financial implications will be addressed. He will discuss the process of changing a school system's directions.

The administration is aware that not all teachers are ready for dramatic change of instructional methods. A key to success is an

encouraging, supportive administration. Teachers respond positively when they receive respect for their professional knowledge and personal creativity. They no longer feel governed and regulated by the pages of a basal teacher's manual. Team teaching and collegial sharing must be encouraged.

This team approach to mastery of the language arts through a holistic curriculum enables our students to meet the challenges of life in the 21st century.

David M. Finn, Ed.D.
University of Alabama at Birmingham
Sparks Center
P.O. Box 313
Birmingham, AL 35294
(205) 934-1121

Pam Tazioli, M.A.
Special Education Consultant
10004 43rd Place, NE
Seattle, WA 98125
(206) 523-6941

CLEANING OUT THE WHEELBARROW: PLANNING APPROPRIATE ASSESSMENTS FOR TRANSITION

Introduction

New state and federal mandates are expanding services to young children who have handicapping conditions. One of the major concerns that early childhood special education personnel face is in the planning of how these children will be assessed. That concern grows exponentially as these children move from one service delivery agency to another.

Examples of transition vary according to the organization of services available in each state. Interagency transitions occur when children transfer from programs offered by an educational service district (ESD) into those provided by the local education agency (LEA). Another example of an interagency transition is the movement of children from a community-based early intervention agency into programs rendered by a regional agency such as those provided by a Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES). The transition of students concurrently enrolled in a non-profit special education preschool and local Headstart program into a school district program is a third example of an interagency transition. This array of services is common among states serving young children with disabilities either under permissive or mandatory legislation. That distribution of services becomes increasingly complex as the child's degree of involvement increases. For example, it is not uncommon for a child who is moderately to severely involved to have been enrolled in two or more agencies by the age of four. Further, these children and their families may be involved with other service providers in addition to enrollment in a primary agency. Ancillary service providers such as private speech therapists or Indian Health Services commonly involved with the delivery of services also need to participate at transition points.

Is it possible for all providers to work together to comprehensively assess the children and families they serve? It is time to examine transition procedures and rid that wheelbarrow of service redundancies and the misuse of scarce service dollars. Multi-agency involvement need not be a source of frustration and confusion to professionals and the families they serve. Rather, it can be a streamlined vehicle for trust, communication, and cooperation for the effective and efficient delivery of educational services.

Since the role of rural service delivery personnel may be broad or even undefined, it behooves us to identify a process that makes optimal use of assessment data specific to programmatic changes which will minimize duplication of services and unnecessary exploitation of resources. The objectives of this presentation are:

1.) to share issues surrounding interagency transition;
2.) to introduce a guide which helps agency personnel define problems with their transition process;

3.) to present strategies that rural providers can use to plan efficient and useful interagency transition procedures; and
4.) to discuss the components of assessment tools that facilitate the transition process.

In response to needs expressed by directors of special education in local school districts and by directors of early intervention programs serving children from birth through age two, procedures were developed by the Networking and Evaluation Team at the University of Washington to assist in early childhood transition. Agency personnel who participated in interagency transition were interviewed to identify problems, existing procedures, and suggested strategies for improving the transition process. Parents of children who had been through a transition process were also interviewed about their role in the process and their satisfaction with the procedures. In addition, parents of children who were in the process of moving from one program to another were interviewed over a six month period at regular intervals in order to ascertain their concerns with the transition process and their recommendations for improvements.

As a result of these interviews, the Early Childhood Interagency Transition Model (Gallaher, Maddox, & Edgar; 1984) emerged. Model strategies were field-tested in urban, suburban, and rural communities in Washington state. Children served by transition field-test sites were from two to eight years old. The strategies were revised based on field-test evaluation results and on recommendations made by twelve field readers. The model was then replicated in six western states and has demonstrated high satisfaction ratings (Gallaher, et al., 1984).

Transition Issues

The organization of service delivery systems varies considerably across LEA's, regions and states. Results from field-test sites revealed that common concerns/transition issues surfaced during major transition periods. If left unaddressed, these variables can inhibit interagency collaboration and efficient transition processes. The first variable may be a lack of program awareness that can plague the human service delivery system. Worse yet, there is often misinformation regarding other programs available to the transitioning student and family. This ignorance of program descriptions has been demonstrated in rural and urban sites alike. Accurate program information of all potentially appropriate services is critical when making transition decisions.

Eligibility criteria is the second variable effecting interagency transitions. Numerous and detailed criteria requirements regulate program admission and discharge. It is this maze of eligibility criteria which often contributes to gaps in services available to individual clients. Agency personnel need to be knowledgeable of eligibility criteria at major transition points. The exchange of information specific to the client is another component necessary for an efficient transition process. Lack of respect toward sending agencies, confidentiality regulations, and poor timing are only a few of the reasons why assessment data and client information are unused by receiving agencies. This lack of information exchange contributes to the duplication of services. Adequate planning for the completion and transfer of records is an integral step in the transition process.

The fourth component effecting transitions is pre-planning that is specific to the student and family. Pre-planning requires both a philosophical commitment by agencies involved and an adequate allotment of time for those pre-planning activities. Agency personnel can begin by defining problems specific to their transition processes, documenting effective transition procedures currently in place, and examining new strategies which will complete the transition process. Documenting transition procedures in writing will help monitor the timing of events and maintain staff and parent accountability for specific activities. Feedback, parent involvement, and interpersonal relations are other variables that effect the transition process.

Troubleshooting

Agencies can begin addressing their community's interagency transition process by first evaluating the transition procedures currently in place. The "Transition Troubleshooting Guide" found in the Early Childhood Interagency Transition Model is a tool which was designed to help agency personnel identify and clarify issues surrounding their present transition activities. The "Guide" is, essentially, a needs assessment tool that focuses on problems of a systemic nature. When correctly used, it helps minimize the common occurrence of "finger pointing" or "personal accusations" that may be directed toward the other agency members. Users who are completing the "Guide" are asked to select from a series of problem statements which describe their agency's transition process. The inappropriate placement of children, the untimeliness of transition activities, and the unnecessary duplication of assessment procedures are only a few of the problems listed in the "Guide". A clear definition of transition problems and suggested strategies for alleviating these problems will result from the Troubleshooting exercise. When completed by all personnel invested in the interagency transition process, the guide will allow for shared ownership in problem definition and illustrate an accurate picture of a community's transition process.

Transition Strategies

Once agency personnel have clearly identified their problems, they can begin to examine concomitant solutions. The Early Childhood Interagency Transition Model describes thirteen strategies which agency personnel can use to develop a comprehensive interagency transition process. The strategies describe activities which facilitate the transfer of records; the timing of transition events; the awareness of programs; parent involvement; the decision making process; and postplacement communication. Every strategy indicates what action is required, who should be involved, and when the activity should be conducted. Explanations, guidelines, and necessary forms are included with every strategy. Each may be modified to suit individual needs. Strategy excerpts from the model and examples of strategy adaptations by rural providers will be available to participants of this session. Transition is a time when service providers naturally interact. An interagency approach to defining problems and designing procedures will encourage all personnel to have a voice in the transition process, thereby producing changes which will be accepted and utilized.

Assessment Issues

Process Considerations

Since it is critical that all early childhood special education personnel collaborate prior to the actual transition of a child from one agency to another, those early interactions provide a number of opportunities to discuss and plan a number of service delivery procedures and options. One of the most important factors that can be discussed is assessment. The assessment of young children and their families may be undertaken for a number of reasons including screening, placement, determination of specific strengths and weaknesses, or for follow-up evaluation. As these children move quickly across settings and agencies, it behooves us to identify assessment tools and procedures that will enable both sending and receiving agency personnel to compare child performance outcomes across those settings. The field of early childhood special education is new and part of our responsibility within that profession is to determine what strategies are most successful with certain groups of children. Without a coordinated assessment approach, we may not know the effects of our "best intervention practices" as children transition from services provided by PL 99-457 to those mandated by PL 94-142; a period of time that may stretch across almost five years. These services are too costly both in terms of actual dollars and in time spent by family members and service providers to wait that long. The jury is still out regarding the effects of special education for school-age children. In a proactive sense we must take an early leadership role in clearly

determining entry level behavior and what modifies that behavior best. Time and money are too scarce and these lives are too fragile to wait for a federal mandate or worse, public discontent with ineffective programs that may have been comparing apples to oranges.

Types of Assessment Models

First, urban or rural educational districts will want to capitalize on an assessment situation or setting that affords for maximum observation of the functional abilities of the child and family by relevant team members. A number of models have been suggested for conducting assessments that involve a number of different disciplines. The first model is known as the multidisciplinary assessment model. This model recognizes the importance of each discipline and provides for separate evaluations by the various team members. Often referred to as the medical model, it allows specific evaluators to focus on the child; albeit in isolation of other interested parties. The results of this type of evaluation are often shared through the mail or assimilated by a designated service coordinator. The advantage of this model is that the arduous task of scheduling several professionals for a single group meeting is not required. Children/patients can be seen at the option of each service provider. The lack of professional interaction and sharing of different observations and impressions often renders this model to be least desirable.

The second assessment paradigm to emerge is known as the interdisciplinary model. While this model still supports the need for individual assessment "sessions", it does support the notion of sharing child performance results through a team process. Results are shared in team meetings and recommendations are often a team effort. Roles and responsibilities for providing services are also easier to discern when team members are in concert with one another.

The newest assessment format to emerge is referred to as the transdisciplinary model. This model recognizes the importance of a significant family member as an integral team member. Further, it designates one team member as a "primary therapist" and allows for significant sharing of roles and responsibilities across disciplines (Campbell, 1987). This model demands considerable coordination among team members. Assessments are often conducted by several professionals at once; making suggestions and trying various strategies during the actual assessment process.

School districts serving young children should discuss these options relative to their resources and geographical limitations. Service areas with limited specialized personnel may opt for interdisciplinary assessments and provide transdisciplinary services. The key is to identify a realistic process and determine what trade offs exist. For example, if a speech pathologist serving young children in the Aleutian Islands of Alaska is limited in actual face-to-face therapy sessions, s/he may utilize video tape training and evaluation sessions that are augmented with telephone link-ups; budgetary items that must be planned for by educational agencies.

Tool Selection Considerations

Once an interactive process for conducting assessments has been determined, the next step is to select assessment tools to meet those assessment needs. The optimal situation is to select tests that are specifically designed to measure the unique abilities of each child. Many school districts, however, are bound by limited economic resources and may not be able to purchase all of the tests, protocols, and testing materials to address all assessment possibilities for children from birth through age five. Tool selection becomes even more critical when the exceptionalities to be addressed may range from mild learning handicaps to profound and/or multiple involvements. Again, it is critical for special education personnel to consider cooperative agreements between districts in the selection, purchase and use of specialized instruments.

To assist in that decision making paradigm, the following questions should be considered by relevant team/cooperative members:

1.) What is the purpose of the assessment? Is this for screening, placement, or to determine appropriate goals and objectives for an IFSP? What types of tests will be needed?

2.) Are you satisfied with the statistical evidence regarding the construction, validation, uses and limitations of the tests that are selected?

3.) Does the age-span of those selected tests address your targeted population or must you use several different forms/tools to cover 0-5 year old performance?

4.) Does the purchase, administration, scoring, and interpretation of those tests require special permission and or training? Can it be used by several different disciplines (i.e. OT/PT, speech pathologists, special educators, nurses, etc.)?

5.) Are the test materials available, durable, and replaceable within the economic resources of your budget?

6.) How long does it take to administer, score, and interpret each test?

7.) Are there special test administration considerations for children with specific handicapping conditions (i.e. sensory, physical, or serious emotional challenges)?

8.) Are the results of those tests useful? Do they meet state guidelines for placement or are they helpful in generating functional goals/objectives for the child/family?

These are just a few suggestions that may be useful for planning interagency assessment processes. Yet, perhaps the most effective tool in designing flexible and effective assessment strategies is the professionals' attitude. The tasks ahead of us are largely undefined and our roles are less clear. The best support we can offer these families is coordinated support. That type of support is clearly long-lasting; and enables family members to plan for the future with a greater degree of certainty (Fewell & Vadasy, 1986).

References

Campbell, P.H. (1987). The integrated programming team: An approach for coordinating professionals of various disciplines in programs for students with severe and multiple handicaps. Journal for the Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps, 12(2), 107-116.

Coordinated Service Delivery for Young Handicapped Children Project. (Final Reports; 1987, 1988) Unpublished Manuscripts, University of Washington, Experimental Education Unit, Seattle, WA.

Fewell, R.R. & Vadasy, P.F. (1986). Families of handicapped children. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Gallaher, J., Maddox, M., & Edgar, E. (1984). Early childhood interagency transition model. Bellevue, WA: Edmark Corp.

James B. Gray, Jr., Director
Teacher Education
University of Maryland
Eastern Shore
Princess Anne, MD 21853
John Wolinski, Assistant Dean
Salisbury State University
Salisbury, MD 21801
Terry Hammerbacher, Supervisor
Elementary Education
Worcester County Schools
Newark, MD 21841

Recent research demonstrates an array of effective teaching behaviors that positively influence academic achievement. Their inclusion in the repertoire of classroom teachers has become the purview of staff development specialists, supervisors of instruction, state department personnel, and university faculty. School systems have developed training activities to encourage teachers to become competent at employing these skills.

Providing staff development experiences for rural areas generally and in effective teaching skills specifically is an undertaking with unique difficulties and challenges. Large, sparsely populated areas, with remote schools that require teachers to travel long distances to attend staff development activities often discourage commitment and undermine the creation of standard practice within rural systems. The uniqueness of the schools often encourages teachers to see their problems in a singular fashion that discourages strong feelings of esprit de corps

Similar problems in creating commitment to standards of professional practice exist in teacher education programs. Furthermore, teaching experiences required of preservice teachers reveal obvious strengths but numerous weaknesses (Griffin, 1983). Preservice aching experiences are generally:

a) judged as satisfying and comfortable
b) dominated by supervising teachers
c) focused on immediate how-to information
d) poorly linked to campus courses
e) weak in their reinforcement of effective teaching principles
f) undemanding in requiring students to reflect on the connection of teaching principles to learning.

With these considerations in mind, the Rural Teaching Effectiveness Network was created to serve the most rural area of Maryland, the Eastern Shore. The area is located on the Delmarva Peninsula which is geographically separated from large east coast population centers by the Chesapeake Bay, primarily agrarian, and except for seasonal resort areas, sparsely populated.

Background and Purpose

The Maryland State Department of Education (MSDE) as the agency responsible for the approval of teacher education programs, continuing education activities, and teacher certification, through a review of its activities and a needs assessment, identified as a priority the creation of a teaching effectiveness network. The network consists of staff specialists from MSDE, institutions of higher education, and local school system personnel who serve on collaborative teams. The teams represent regions throughout the state. Each serve the populations represented within their area and design activities to meet their individual needs. The basic purpose of the Teaching Effectiveness Network (TEN) is to present and encourage the employment of teaching effectiveness principles within the systems traditionally responsible for the preparation and inservice training of teachers. This purpose is accomplished through collaboration between staff development specialists from the state department of education, personnel from the local education agencies, and faculty from institutions of higher eduction (Murphy, 1985).

The TEN goals are:

a) to encourage continuity between campus courses and school experiences
b) to promote research based teacher education
c) to encourage the use of effective teaching principles
d) to establish and employ a common vocabulary about teaching
e) to improve supervision

These goals are achieved through summer week-long institutes and follow-up workshops conducted during the school year. These activities are described in yearly action plans which are developed by local teams. The cooperative endeavors generate from existing personnel cadres of professionals that become a resource to their school system and the rural areas they serve.

Strategy and Structure

The initial strategy was to recruit personnel from MSDE, IHEs, and schools who would be involved in the first summer training institute (see Table 1). MSDE personnel were identified from those who served as staff development specialist within the established state regions, IHE faculty from those who taught methods courses and supervised clinical experiences, and, school system personnel from staff development specialists and principals. Teams of individuals representing each of these groups were formed within each region. The initial training was completed, action plans were developed and roles were assigned to each team member (see Table 2).

Insert Table 1 & 2 about here

MSDE personnel encouraged collaboration between the schools and IHEs and supported principals and school staff development specialists as they recruited teachers from their respective schools. Faculty acted as change agents within their individual departments. They reviewed the TEN content and its research base with colleagues, recruited faculty for future activities, revised course content and field practica, participated in peer teaching activities, and cooperatively conducted staff development activities with school personnel.

The second summer institute was offered in the rural school systems. Levels of participation which refer to levels of training and years of experience with TEN were identified. Level II participants, all these trained in the first summer, refined specific skills, participated in coaching activities, and trained new participants from each of the represented organizations. Level I participants, were prepared through lecture, demonstration, and peer teaching to employ the effective teaching skills which were presented to Level II participants in the previous summer. Within the school systems, TEN schools were identified. These schools served as practica sites. The teachers and preservice students assigned to them throughout the following year employed effective teaching principles, participated in peer teaching, cooperated in coaching activities, and video-taped demonstration lessons and supervisory conferences.

In the third year, Level III participants were responsible for coordinating the summer institute, providing presentations for both Level I and Level II participants, and serving as

mentors in county induction programs. Levels I and II, during the summer institute and in the following year, completed the activities previously described for the appropriate level.

After the third summer institute, participants complete the basic core content, but because of the success and interest in the project and new state training initiatives, additional content for Level IV and Level V participants was added during the fourth and fifth summer of 1987 and 1988, respectively. Level IV participants were provided advanced training in coaching and supervision in 1987; Level V participants in 1988 completed training in the use of a classroom observation instrument.

Content

Teaching effectiveness principles have been described by notable authors (Anderson, Evertson, & Brophy, 1982; Good & Grouws, 1979; Emmer, Evertson, Sanford, & Clements, 1982) and training procedures have been designed and validated in research projects that have been carried out within public schools (Good & Grouws, 1979; Fitzpatrick, 1981; Becker, 1977). Consequently, there are a variety of resources which can be employed. TEN employs as its core content the Mastery Teaching principles that have been developed and packaged by Madeline Hunter (1982).

Hunter's (1982) work has broad appeal and is well received by teachers. Her view of teaching as "a constant stream of professional decisions made before, during and after interaction with the students " (p.3), accurately describes the process that occurs in most classrooms and reflects empathetic understanding of teachers' power to influence achievement. Additionally, it employs a vocabulary which accurately describes specific teaching procedures and processes with which diverse educators establish easy rapport. The material is well organized, logically presented, and easily used with individuals or groups. These considerations are particulary important for rural schools where staff developed activities are often inhibited by small numbers of participants, travel difficulties, and isolation and where resources are limited.

Hunter (1982) stresses that Mastery Teaching is a compilation of research on teaching and learning presented in a fashion that allows teachers to know "what you are doing when you teach, why you are doing what you do, and do that consciously and

deliberately to increase your students' learning" (p. ix, 1982). Topics included in the core TEN content are: a) decisions in teaching, b) motivation, c) providing information effectively, d) teaching to both halves of the brain, e) modeling, f) guiding practice, g) teaching for transfer, h) checking for understanding and i) effective lesson design. Because TEN employs teams to carry out cooperative action plans, the specific and confined content is an asset.

Participants complete Mastery Teaching content in their third year of the project. Levels IV and V completed in the fourth and fifth year provide opportunities to develop additional skills. Level IV provides experiences that develop the coaching and supervisory skills described by Joyce and Showers (1982). The skills are particularly important for participants who supervise students from cooperating IHEs or serve as mentors in county based induction programs. Level V presents the Maryland Classroom Observation Inventory (MCOI) and assists teachers as they employ it in their schools. The MCOI describes in four domains, planning, instructional delivery, classroom management, and teacher-learner interaction, effective teaching principles which were validated by Research for Better Schools. The 45 succinct statements of behavior support the content presented in Levels I-III. Participants are encouraged to use the MCOI in describing teaching episodes of beginning and experienced teachers as they become involved in local school based training initiatives and TEN. The use of the MCOI allows participating teachers to specify strengths and weaknesses in their teaching repertoire as they begin to employ the Mastery Teaching Procedures.

Results

Since the initiation of the Teaching Effectiveness Network in 1984, positive results have been consistently reported. Both institutions, Salisbury State University (SSU) and the University of Maryland Eastern Shore (UMES), have incorporated the effective teaching principles into their preservice and graduate programs. Collective student enrollment since 1985 in courses which stress effective teaching principles exceeds 600. Participation of teachers has consistently increased. Upon completion of the 1988 summer institute, 225 teachers from two counties, Wicomico and Worcester, had become involved in the Network.

A review of the evaluation process demonstrates the overall positive response to the content from preservice teachers. Three evaluative measures were employed: (a) the "Course and Instructor Evaluation" which was developed by SSU, (b) the IDEA Report (1976), a nationally tested course/instructor evaluation developed by the Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development in Higher Education, and (c) a five item open-ended narrative form. The overall outcome of the evaluation can best be demonstrated by reviewing the results of a specific methods course, "Principles of Secondary Education".

The "Course and Instructor Evaluation" asks students to respond to 12 items that evaluate instructor teaching style, level of difficulty, and content. Of those items, one, "This course is helping me become more effective in my profession, or in preparation for my profession", asks students to relate the content with their professional goals. Of the respondents, 93% agreed or strongly agreed with the statement.

The IDEA Report allows students to identify course objectives as either being "important" or "essential" to their professional goals. Of the objectives selected to describe effective teaching principles, all were considered essential, except one which was considered important.

Responses from the open-ended narrative form were grouped according to "descriptors" (Wolinski, 1987). Comments relating to course content, include:

> This course provided me with knowledge about the fundamentals of effective teaching so that I now feel far more confident about my student teaching experience. (p. 4)
>
> This course provided me with so much knowledge on how to conduct a class. Things that I was unsure of before, I now have a solid idea of what to do, and how to do it. (p. 5)

Sample comments that pertain to "feeling more confident" are:

> As a result of this course, I now feel more confident about teaching as well as in my "mastery" of teaching skills.(p. 5)

> I have new-found confidence in my ability to teach. This course has definitely increased the likelihood that learning will take place in my classroom. (p. 5)

Comments were also made concerning the modeling process and practice activities that are encouraged within the Network:

> The instructor in this course is an example of "practicing what you preach," or more accurately, "what you teach". The principles that he teaches are principles that he uses. (p. 6)

> You learn principles and you "see" their application. (p. 6).

Observations indicate that preservice teachers employ the effective teaching principles during their supervised teaching experience (Garigliano, 1986). Data analyzed during 150 lessons, described on the summary form "Teaching Effectiveness Notes: A Coaching-Conference Guide" demonstrate consistent and successful transfer from methods courses to supervised teaching. Preservice teachers consistently employed nine effective teaching principles: (a) planning lessons, (b) getting the class ready to learn, (c) letting the class know the "what" and "why" of the lesson, (d) employing teaching methods and strategies, (e) providing models, (f) using audiovisual aids, (g) checking for understanding, (h) guiding practice, and (i) managing the classroom. Of equal importance, the observations indicated that the students confidently employed the principles early in the experience and demonstrated diverse methods and activities in their teaching.

Evaluations from teachers who have participated in TEN have been consistently positive. Their willingness to attend the training sessions, their involvement as presenters, cooperating teachers, and mentors within county based induction programs are testimony to their belief in the project and their dedication to effective teaching principles.

Interview data were collected from a representative sample (N=63) which included IHE faculty, principals, and classroom teachers from five project sites. Consistently positive responses were made regarding: (a) usefulness of the project for participants, (b) needs cited by participants related to the

project, (c) ways in which teaching effectiveness principles/ ideas were used, taught, or disseminated, (d) participant's viewpoints about the model, and (e) training support for the project. Particular strengths noted during the interviews were the practicality of the project, the common language used to describe the effective teaching principles, the emphasis on principles of learning, and lesson design. Participants were critical of the model because it tended to be seen as a panacea, it excluded other teaching approaches, and it encouraged preservice teachers to be preoccupied with student motivation (Christensen, 1986).

Discussion

The Teaching Effectiveness Network offers a collaborative process to teacher education that allows rural areas to meet diverse staff development needs. Its inclusion of state department of education staff development specialists, LEA personnel and IHE faculty on teams encourages regions to collectively respond to training and staffing needs in a manner that multiplies training effects. The outcomes have been consistently positive. Teachers, preservice students, and faculty, as a result of being included in the planning, delivery, and assessment process, demonstrate a commitment to effective teaching principles that in the past have been poorly articulated and inconsistently practiced.

For rural school systems with comparable resources, the structure and strategy of the network described here is replicative. A large capital investment is not required; a willingness to allow educators the time to communicate and collaborate is, however, imperative. The outcome can be the creation of a well trained cadre of professionals who are committed to high standards of instruction that encourage achievement.

Table 1

The TEN Implementation Strategy

>TEAMS>-------->------->TEAMS>---------->------->TEAMS>

PHASE I	PHASE II	PHASE III
Propositional (the what)	Procedural (the how)	Conditional (apply and refine)
Identify principles and vocabulary	Practice in teaching	Refine principles
Develop faculty skills	Teach/supervise students	Teach/supervise others
Clarify roles responsibilities	Improve communication and planning	Develop new roles
Assess process	Assess process and faculty progress	Assess process and student/faculty progress

Table 2

Ten Participant Collaborative Activities

State Department Personnel	LEA Personnel	Faculty
Complete initial TEN training	Complete initial TEN training	Complete initial TEN training
Encourage cooperation between teams	Recruit participants	Recruit participants
Recruit participants	Demonstrate effective teaching principles	Demonstrate effective teaching principles
Coordinate state level activities	Video-tape their teaching episodes for self-evaluation and coaching purposes	Video-tape their teaching episodes for self-evaluation and coaching purposes
	Video-tape coaching and supervisory sessions	Video-tape coaching and supervisory sessions
	Participate in peer teaching and coaching within their schools	Revise course content to stress effective teaching principles
	Cooperatively plan teacher education field practica with colleagues and IHE faculty	Cooperatively plan teacher education field practica with colleagues and LEA personnel
	Serve as cooperating teachers for IHEs	Revise field activitie to stress effective teaching principles

References

Anderson, L.M., Evertson, C.M., & Brophy, F.E. (1979). An experimental study of effective teaching in first-grade reading groups. The Elementary School Journal, 79, 193-222.

Becker, W.C. (1977). Teaching reading and language to the disadvantaged - What have we learned from field research. Harvard Educational Review, 47, 518-543.

Christensen, P. (1986). Maryland State Department of Education Teaching Effectiveness Network Project (Summary Report of Interview Data 1985-1986). Baltimore, MD: Maryland State Department of Education.

Emmer, E.T., Evertson, C., Sanford, J. & Clements, B.S. (1982). Improving classroom management: An experimental study in junior high classrooms. Austin, TX: Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, University of Texas.

Fitzpatrick, K.A. (1981). An investigation of secondary classroom material strategies for increasing student academic engaged time. Doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Garigliano, L. (1986). Report to the eastern shore teaching effectiveness network on student teaching observations for the spring 1986 semester. Unpublished manuscript, Salisbury State College, Salisbury, MD.

Good, T.L., & Grows, D.A. (1979). The Missouri mathematics effectiveness project. Journal of Educational Psychology, 71, 355-362.

Griffin, G. (1983). Clinical preservice teacher education: Final report of a descriptive study. Austin, Texas: Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, University of Texas.

Hunter, M. (1982). Mastery teaching. El Segundo, CA: TIP.

IDEA REPORT. (1976). Manhattan, Kansas: Kansas State University, Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development in Higher Education.

Joyce, B.R., & Showers, B. (1982). The coaching of teaching. Educational Leadership, 40(1), 4-16.

Murphy, J. (1935). Teaching Effectiveness Network: A preservice program improvement project. Baltimore, MD: Maryland State Department of Education. Baltimore, MD.

Wolinski, J.T. (1986). Undergraduate students' precetions of the principles of Mastery Teaching: A preliminary report. Salisbury State College, Salisbury, MD.

James B. Gray, Jr, Director
Teacher Education
University of Maryland
Eastern Shore
Princess Anne, MD 21853
Glen Hammerbacher, Supervisor
Special Education
Worcester County Schools
Newark, MD 21841
Kathy Simon, Coordinator
Learning Disabilities
Worcester County Schools
Newark, MD 21841

Background

The Maryland State Department of Education (MSDE) cooperatively with seven counties located predominately on the Eastern Shore of Maryland created a research based project to determine the feasibility and outcome of employing microcomputers to instruct special education students in writing skills.

The project was supported by the Christina Foundation. Through the work of the foundation 50 Apple II computers were donated to each of the LEAs for use in the project. The computers were donated by private business who were replacing old machines with new equipment. All computers were reconditioned before they were presented to the LEAs.

The goals of the project were:

1. To determine if writing instruction using word processing results in increased writing skills when compared to writing instruction in which word processing is not employed.

2. To study the effects of writing instruction using word processing on the performance of special education students on the Maryland Functional Writing Test.

3. To determine if writing instruction using word processing results in increased student positive attitude toward writing and school in general.

4. To evaluate teacher attitude toward using word processing to teach writing to special education students.

This paper reviews the first phase analyses of the three year project, teacher attitude toward using word processing. Other data will be analyzed and reported as they become available.

Design

The 42 teachers participating in the study were randomly assigned either to a control or an experimental group. The control group consisted of 16 teachers, the experimental group 26. All teachers received inservice training in teaching writing to special education students. Teachers in the experimental group received reconditioned Apple II computers, software and training in word processing. The child:computer ration was 1:1 in most classes but ranged upward to 5:1.

Demographic data were collected as the project began. Pre and post measures were collected on an attitude survey. Teacher attitudes were examined using a semantic differential which measurad four concepts: (a) "The writing ability of my students", (b) " Teaching writing to special education students", (c) "Use of microcomputers for classroom instruction", and (d) "Use of computers for instruction of writing." The semantic differential allowed comparison across three dimensions, Evaluation, Potency, and Activity.

After the intervention period was completed, a survey was administered to the teachers who had used word processing to teach writing. The questionnaire was designed to collect teacher attitude about the practical dynamics involved in using microcomputers and word processing programs (Clark & Hayden, 1985).

Preliminary Results

Demographic data are summarized in Table 1, teacher perceptions in Table 2 and teacher attitudes in Table 3. The data presented in this paper primarily serve to describe the teachers involved in the study. Analyses were completed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Crosstabulation program. The means provided for the teacher attitude scales were completed with the SPSSX T test program.

A review of the teachers' education, experiences, and training demonstrate that the control and experimental group were quite similar. Half of each group had advanced degrees.

The mean years of teaching experience generally (Control Mean=8.13; Experimental Mean=8.69) and of teaching writing specifically (Control Mean=8.56; Experimental Mean=7.54) are comparable. More than half of each group had previous in-service training on writing instruction (Control=10; Experimental=17). Both groups considered training in writing techniques either useful or very useful (Control=87.5%; Experimental=88.5%). Sixty-five percent of both groups had previous training on writing instruction.

The organization, class size, and emphases on teaching writing were also comparable. Teachers were responsible for teaching students from grades 4-12; the majority of the students came from grades 4-9. Students were assigned to resource rooms based upon need for special services described by levels I-IV. Level I students were in classrooms where teachers received consultative help from special educators; Level IV students were placed in special classes more than 3 hours per day. The majority of teachers served all levels. Most teachers served groups which did not exceed 10 students. Almost half of the experimental teachers served children in larger groups of 11-20 students, however. Assistance from aides was infrequent.

Forty of the 42 teachers participating in the study wanted access to computers in their classroom. Twenty-nine had used computers for instructional purposes previously. Thirteen had access to computers in their homes.

Insert Table 1 about here

Teachers from the experimental group reported consistently positive perceptions of the project Training in the use of software was considered adequate by 77% of the teachers; 88% were satisfied with the technical assistance. Eighty-five percent were satisfied with the software program but only 50% were satisfied with the equipment, although equipment adjustments were rather infrequent.

Insert Table 2 about here

Pre and post test differences and differences between the groups on the semantic differential in most cases were marginal. On statement 1, "The writing ability of my students", post test scores were consistently higher across all three dimensions in the experimental group. Comparisons between the groups on statement 1 show consistent higher scores in the experimental group, with marked differences on the post test. On statements 2, "Teaching Writing to special education students", and 3, "Use of microcomputers for classroom instruction," in both groups there were pre test scores which were higher than post test scores. In the control group, pre test scores were higher for statement 2 on the evaluation and activity dimension. For statement 3, the pre test scores were higher across all three dimensions. In the experimental group, pre test scores were higher for statements 2 and 3 on the activity dimension. The pre test score on statement 1, potency dimension, was higher in the control group.

Insert Table 3 about here

Discussion

The results of these data indicate that teachers in rural schools who teach special education students in resource rooms are interested and respond positively to teaching writing through word processing. Teachers can, with minimal in-service training, successfully employ word processing procedures and teach handicapped children to use word processing in their own writing. Teachers, after initial training, require minimal assistance and quickly establish rapport with word processing software. Furthermore, the responses indicate that outdated reconditioned computers with minimal 64 (KB) capacity can be used successfully within special education classrooms.

Although pre and post differences on the semantic differential were minimal in most cases, the marked differences in the experimental group indicate that teachers believe that word processing has an important positive effect on the writing skills of mildly handicapped students. It will be interesting if future analyses of the students' writing support this belief. Follow-up observations will also show the long term effects on teachers. In short, will they make word processing a standard procedure in teaching writing instruction.

Rural school systems should consider carefully the resources employed in this study. The initial outcome indicates that cooperative arrangements with foundations and/or business and industry may be fruitful. Outdated reconditioned computer equipment can be successfully used by teachers in instructing basic skills that have in the past been treated as paper, pencil, worksheet, and workbook drudgery.

Table 1

Demographic Summary Data

Topic	Group	
	Control	Experimental
Grades taught	4th-12th	4th-12th
Levels served	I-IV	I-IV
Years of special education experience	Mean=8.13	Mean=8.69
Years of experience teaching writing	Mean=8.56	Mean=7.54
Degrees earned		
BA/BS	9	13
MA/MS	5	13
PHD/EDD	2	0
Desire to use computer in instruction		
Yes	14	26
No	2	0
Experience using computer in the last year		
Yes	11	17
No	5	9
Computer at home		
Yes	5	8
No	11	17
Computer use prior to 87-88		
Yes	8	14
No	8	11
Computer in-service prior to June 1987		
Yes	10	17
No	6	9

Table 1 continued

Demographic Summary Data

Topic	Group	
	Control	Experimental
Proportion of time spent teaching writing		
0-20%	4	1
21-40%	3	5
41-60%	4	12
61-80%	2	7
81-100%	2	1
Average language arts class size		
1-5	4	4
6-10	9	11
11-15	2	5
16-20	1	6
Frequency of assistance from aide		
Never	11	18
Sometimes	4	4
Always	1	4
Usefulness of training received for this project		
very	2	12
useful	12	11
not	2	2

Note. The data are from "Maryland Writing Study Computer Assisted Word Processing Project" by John Haigh, 1988.

Table 2

Teacher Perceptions Summary Data

Equipment		
Topic	Frequency	Responses
Equipment adjustments in last three months	1/day	8
	1/week	5
	1/month	9
	none	4
Computer related assistance in last three months from someone inside your building	1/day	1
	1/week	3
	1/month	10
	none	12
Computer related assistance in last three months from someone outside your building	1/day	1
	1/week	0
	1/month	10
	none	14

Training, Equipment, and Software		
Topic	Options	Response
Adequate training on the Milliken Software	Yes	20
	No	6
Satisfaction with Milliken Software	Yes	22
	No	4
Satisfaction with the equipment	Yes	13
	No	13
Satisfaction with technical assistance	Yes	23
	No	2

Table 2 continued

Teacher Perceptions Summary Data

Comparative Data

Topic	Quantity	Responses
Compared to the way you previously taught writing, how much planning time was required to apply the computers?		
	less	3
	same	14
	more	6
Compared to the way you previously taught writing, how easily did your students acquire the concepts		
	difficulty	
	less	13
	same	7
	more	3
Compared to the way you previously taught writing, what is the level of enthusiasm expressed by your students regarding writing?		
	enthusiasm	
	less	0
	same	2
	more	21

Note. The data are from "Maryland Writing Study Computer Assisted Word Processing Project" by John Haigh, 1988.

Table 3

Teacher Attitudes Mean Scores

Group I = Control
Group II= Experimental

Statement	1		2		3		4	
	I	II	I	II	I	II	I	II
Evaluation								
Pre Test	16.00	20.00	30.83	29.58	31.16	30.20	31.65	30.00
Post Test	18.43	31.00	30.83	29.67	30.95	32.10	32.28	32.40
Activity								
Pre Test	6.71	7.00	13.72	14.50	15.95	16.50	16.83	15.80
Post Test	8.71	15.00	14.33	13.58	15.68	15.50	16.89	16.60
Potency								
Pre Test	11.00	10.00	20.11	18.00	19.53	19.90	20.00	20.80
Post Test	10.57	23.00	19.17	20.09	19.32	20.40	32.40	21.30

Note. The data are from "Maryland Writing Study Computer Assisted Word Processing Project" by John Haigh, 1988.

References

Clark, D. & Hayden, D. (1985). Easten Shore work processing project: Procedure manual. Baltimore, MD: Maryland State Department of Education.

Haigh, J. (1988). [Maryland writing study computer assisted word processing project]. Unpublished raw data.

John H. Halcrow, Ed.D.
Associate Professor of Education
Department of Professional Education
Bemidji State University
Phone: 218-755-3758

RURAL TEACHER EDUCATION FOR THE 21ST CENTURY: A MINNESOTA OUTREACH MODEL

Abstract

The purpose of this presentation is to describe an outreach distance learning program for the training of elementary teachers at the baccalaureate level.

The objectives of this program are:

1. To deliver baccalaureate level training to students 100 miles plus from the main campus.
2. To place elementary teacher education within the reach of students who are generally:
   a. older than average.
   b. experiencing severe economic hardship.
   c. in the midst of career changes due to a fundamental restructuring of the nation's work force.
   d. unable to attend a traditional undergraduate program because of family responsibilities.

With respect to rural focus, this program is designed to deliver elementary teacher education to students who live in and will study in one of the most rural areas of the nation. It consists of the junior and senior years of teacher education. The program is delivered over a three year cycle. The students take twelve to fourteen quarter hours of instruction each quarter. The majority of the courses are provided in the evening and on weekends. Most of the students work outside of the home or have major child care responsibilities during the day. In the last quarter of their third year they must change to a daytime schedule to complete the student teaching requirement.

Introduction

Bemidji State University qualifies as a rural teacher education setting by almost any standard. We are located in a sparsely populated area known as Northern Minnesota. The institution is in the city of Bemidji which has a population of a little more than 12,000 and is located approximately 250 miles north and west of the Minneapolis-St. Paul metropolitan area which is the dominant cultural, economic, and political center of our state. We are relatively isolated not only by distance but also by harsh winter conditions for approximately five to six months.

The institution itself will soon be seventy years old. It opened in the fall of 1919 under the name of Bemidji State Normal School with 38 students and has since grown to an institution of just under 5,000. Also, much to the chagrin of our catalog writers, it has maintained a sharp focus on the preparation of teachers in a wide variety of fields.

The Past

Within the educational service area of Bemidji State is an ethnically mixed area known as the Iron Range. For at least the last 15 years, the pressure has been building to have more higher education programs on "the range." There had been a great deal of speculation about how baccalaureate programs could be offered there; mostly by the range residents themselves. There have been community college programs available for more than a generation, but over the years this level of preparation has become less and less sufficient in our rapidly changing and upgrading world.

The catalyst for the present program started with major changes in the processing and manufacturing of steel products of which taconite pellets are a major ingredient. When this market changed, the economic repercussions were felt in the range communities very quickly. Mass lay-offs and a rapidly expanding depression grew with startling speed. This set the stage for action.

Student Background

In 1985, a group of potential elementary education majors who were attending local community colleges or were graduates of those institutions, started a petition to obtain some form of advance training in the range communities. This was necessary because most of these would not be able to obtain the training without having it brought to them. They are predominantly older than average students with complex lives of multiple commitments. Many have families with dependent children. Most of them tend to live in poverty and are probably best typified by the descriptions of the working poor. Many of them are working two or more part time jobs at low pay. Their employment situation is very precarious psychologically. They feel that they could lose their positions at any time. They have minimum to no fringe benefits or job security and they feel completely at the mercy of their employers.

Staff

We have been able to accomplish the entire program without outside grant support. A number of reasons account for this. The major one is the cooperation and flexibility of the faculty. The majority of the senior faculty have been very helpful and

voluntarily committed themselves to the goals of this program. Also, the distance learning aspect of our department has been discussed in the job interviews of the new faculty and has been included in their contracts.

The majority of the classes have been taught on overload for extra pay. This reimbursement is based on 1.5% of the individual professor's nine month contract salary, and ranges from $400 to $714 per credit hour. We also make use of adjunct faculty. Their salary is negotiated with the Director, Center for Extended Learning, who uses the faculty salary schedule to determine the appropriate level of compensation based on extent of training and experience.

Student Processing and Orientation

Word of mouth and poster advertising are used to encourage students who have completed or will soon complete an associate of arts degree from one of the range community colleges and to apply for program admission. Once they decide to apply, they are told to send their transcripts to the external studies office. After an initial screening, the papers are sent to the Department of Education where they are evaluated and the student is admitted to the elementary education program or informed of deficiencies to be removed.

The majority of students are admitted during the fall quarter. A few exceptions are made for students with unusual records, but an attempt is made to hold each cycle to thirty plus students and we try to keep each together so that the majority can be ready for graduation at the end of the third year.

When this program was first designed, it was thought that the students would all go through the first two years of the program and that the third year would be taken as part of our internship program where the students spends one full academic year with a mentor teacher. Only approximately 40% of the first cycle of students were able to do this because of financial and other lifestyle considerations. As a result, the third year of the program was split into an extension offering and an internship. Informal indications at this time seem to dictate that approximately one half of our students will stay in the external studies and the remainder will take the internship option.

The Program

In the first year of the program which began in the fall of 1986, five courses were taught or a total of thirteen quarter hours. (See figure 1) Winter quarter consisted of six courses for a total of eighteen quarter hours and spring quarter consisted of four courses for a total of thirteen quarter hours. Students receive financial aid on the basis of credits taken with

twelve hours or more needed for full time enrollment, 9-11 credits for 3/4 time enrollment and 6-8 credits for 1/2 time. Five or less credits are not eligible for financial aid. If the students follow the cycle sheets and complete the work satisfactorily, they will graduate in three years. Some students are also able to come onto campus for one quarter or a summer session. When this is possible they are then able to jump ahead in the cycles and finish in less than three years. Another way to look at all of this is to say that we deliver two full academic years of course work over three years time. The reason being that the typical range student takes 12-13 hours per quarter while the typical on-campus, full-time student takes 16-18 hours per quarter.

The second and third years can be seen in figure 2.

The Future

In conclusion, I would like to quote from an unpublished paper recently presented on a topic very close to this one:

The Center

> The development of an Iron Range Center can be seen as a natural outgrowth of all the activities mentioned heretofore. For some time residents in the area had expressed dissatisfaction with the idea that there was no four-year institution in the immediate area. This had caused some of their legislators, one in particular, to push the University of Minnesota at Duluth to offer more courses in that area and to ask for funding to explore the unmet needs of the area.
>
> The Center for Extended Learning became aware of the actions of this legislator and took positive steps to let him know that BSU had long been active in serving the needs of his constituents. It was pointed out that interest in the area preceded the current economic slump and that there were numerous instances of students successfully finishing programs through distance learning. The administration took the lead in communicating with him and indicating a willingness to discuss the matter further.
>
> In January of 1988, Senator Ronald Dicklich was invited to campus to visit classes and meet with faculty and staff who participated in taking programs to the Range area. He supported the efforts of BSU and indicated a willingness to introduce legislation to support a feasibility study to determine whether a permanent Iron Range Center should be put in place to expand and reinforce educational services.
>
> BSU has been awarded a $50,000 grant to employ a Coordinator who will work with two consultants to conduct

the study. The Arrowhead Regional Development Commission and the College Board are now conducting the study. This report will be presented to the Northeast Minnesota Higher Education Consortium - BSU, UMD< College cf St. Scholastica, and the Arrowhead Community College Association - and to the legislature in February.

At this point in time, it is impossible to predict what the study will actually prove. The Center for Extended Learning feels very positive, however, and is delighted to see a real exploration of educational needs. Looking at the events which have preceded the study, it is impossible not to feel a sense of pride. The concept of Distance Learning has been providing educational opportunities to this corner of the state for over thirty years. Whether the study indicates a need for a permanent center or not, all indications are that educational activities in this area have not yet peaked.

Reference

Cecil, Lorraine F., Distance Learning: A Viable Alternative - unpublished paper presented at 11th Annual Conference, Quality in Off-Campus Credit Programs: Challenges in Innovation. Sponsored by Kansas State University.

Figuee 1

PROPOSED COURSE SCHEDULE FOR THE IRON RANGE ELEMENTARY EDUCATION MAJOR-88/89

Year 1 (Beginning the program Fall Quarter of 1988)

Fall Quarter			
ED 300	2	Elementary Major	Pre-clinical Experience
ED 310	2	Elementary Major	Curr. and Foundations
ED 353	3	Elementary Major	Elem Art Concept & Mthds
ED 366	4	Early Chldhd Field	Foundations
Winter Quarter			
ED 321	3	Elementary Major	Human Relations
ED 344	2	Elementary Major	P E Methods
ED 376	4	Early Childhd Field	Communications
Spring Quarter			
ED 343	3	Elementary Major	Social Studies Methods
H 391	4	Licensure Req	Health & Drug Education
ED 381	3	Erly Chldhd Field	Tchg Children w/ Sp Needs
ED 367	3	Erly Chldhd Field	Relations & Management

Year 2 (Began the program Fall Quarter, 1987)

Fall Quarter			
ED 346	4	Elementary Major	Reading in Elem School
ED 347	3	Elementary Major	Language Arts
PSY341	4	Early Chldhd Field	Child Psychology
ED 451	2	Spec Ed Field	Screening, Diag & Assess
Winter Quarter			
ED 416	4	Elementary Major	Diag & Rem Instr in Rdg
ED 351	2	Elementary Major	Music Methods
ED 342	3	Elementary Major	Tch Math in Elem School
ED 309	3	Elementary Major	Children's Lit
Spring Quarter			
ED 440	3	Spec Ed Field	Math-Exceptional Learners
SW 301	4	Early Chldhd Field	Parent-Child Relations
ED 348	3	Elementary Major	Science in the Elem Sch
ED 468	3	Early Chldhd Field	Child Development

Year 3 (Began the program Fall Quarter, 1986)

Fall Quarter			
ED 325	5	Elementary Major	Psych Found of Ed
ED 385	3	Elementary Major	Mainstreaming Exc Lrnr
ED 313	3	Elementary Major	Measurement & Evaluation
ED 322	2	Elementary Major	Util of AV Resources
Winter Quarter			
ED 315	2	Elementary Major	Orient to Stud Tchg
ED 314	3	Elementary Major	Class Mgt & Discipline
ED 424	8	Kdgn licensure	Stu Tchg - Kindergarten
ED 427	7	Elementary Major	Elective Stu Tchg
Spring Quarter			
ED 427	16	Elementary Major	Student Teaching

Figure 2

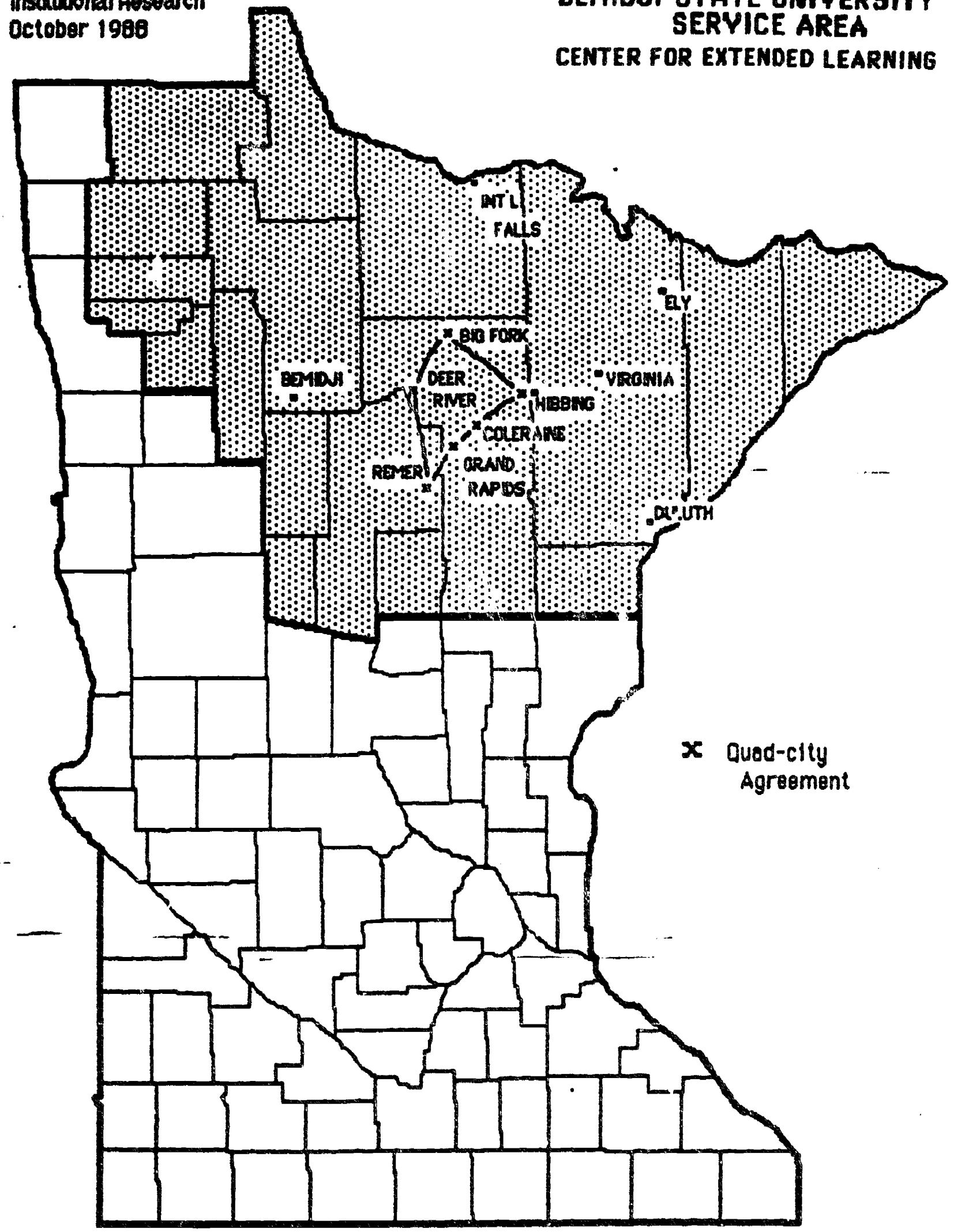


Figure 1

William Hallett
Roosevelt Vocational School
115 E. Street
Lake Wales, FL. 33853
(813) 676-9402

Debra Stintzi
Roosevelt Vocational School
115 E. Street
Lake Wales, FL. 33853
(813) 676-9402

The program to be presented will describe in detail the process of transition for handicapped students. Our main focus is on achieving a smooth adjustment from school to the work place for all of our students. The evolution of "Bridging the Gap" has required many hours and much work and we are proud to have such a useful program to give.

Roosevelt Vocational School, Polk County Schools has an enrollment of approximately 300 students, grades 7-12, participating in full time Exceptional Student Education Programs; Educable Mentally Handicapped, Emotionally Handicapped, Specific Learning Disabled, and Hearing Impaired. Students attending Roosevelt are from all over Polk County. Geographically, Polk County is the largest county in Florida encompassing 1,823 square miles. Dotted with only seventeen cities, Lakeland being the largest with a population of approximately 63,712.

When exceptional students are employed, they become an asset to the community rather than a liability. This goal is achieved through classroom activities, the Employability Skills Program and coordinated work experience in the community. The student who possesses such skills has a far better chance of making a successful transition to employment and independent living.

The Primary Goal of "Bridging the Gap" is to fulfill academic requirements, develop emplyability skills and establish job placement; maintaining communication between school and work place.

Basic Areas of Involvement:
1. Public Relations and Awareness
2. Career Exploration
3. Pre-Vocational/Employability Skills
4. Assessment
5. Transition Planning Team/Student-Employer-Parent-Teacher
6. Employability Skills Program
7. Development/Growth of Program
8. Funding/JTPA

Our Job Placement Program has been developed over the past 3½ years and has yielded a 60% increase in student employment.

In the academic areas, certified special needs teachers are available for EH, EMH, SED, SLD, and HI classes. Roosevelt Vocational follows the Polk County Pupil Progression Plan adopted for the special needs students which leads to a Special Diploma. Emphasis is placed on building a positive self-concept and teaching both life mangement and employability skills.

Vocational offerings include autobody, carpentry, food service, building maintenance, masonry, small engines, business education, and two special junior high courses, the wheel and assembly. Students of different exceptionalities attend classes together but are kept within similiar age groups.

Our school wide behavior mangement system establishes rules necessary for both school and work.. By earning daily points in each class and during lunch, students earn "reinforcement" time on Friday afternoon. Those students earning exemplary number of points earn the status of being "on contract". This status makes a student eligible for many special priveleges such as field trips.

Roosevelt offers some unique extra-curricular activities. Several programs are produces throughout the year which display the many talents of our students like singing, drama, artwork, cooking, and others. RVS has an active FFA chapter (Future Farmers of America) which participates throughout the year in county-wide competitions. Many FFA students enter a project in the county youth fair.

A very important asset to Roosevelt is its "Job Placement Program". This program is divided into two phases. The newest of these phases is the Employabilty Skills Program. The students in this program, primarily juniors, are being taught employability skills to help them gain employment and career independence in the future. The students, supervised by a job coach, spend part of their school day at a place of business in the community.

The second phase in our Job Placement program is an integral one. It provides the transition from the classroom to employment. Job Placement instructors assist the students, primarily seniors in finding a job. After the student is employed, the instructor continues to monitor the student's progress through follow-up visits. The students earn credits while they are "on-the-job" The goal of this program is to provide the necessary training and guidance needed to successfully maintain a job after grad-uation.

A new program is flourshing at Roosevelt Vocational School called ESP, Employability Skills Program. What is the main goal of the program? To teach employability skills to students which will help them for future employment, but most importantly to stay employed. We have all heard the old cliche, " But you have no experience!". The ESP staff and local job sites are helping students achieve experiences on the job they would never get in the classroom.

The students are working at six job sites, Badcock Furniture, Sorenson Chevrolet, Lake Wales Hospital, Ridge Nursing Home, Robin Builders, and Grenelefe Resort and Conference Center. At each site job coaches supervise the students carrying out their assigned responsibilities. The students are involved in jobs such as: assemblying furniture, washing cars, sorting auto parts, grounds maintenance, dishwashing, and working in the serving line.

Initially the job coaches went out to the job sites to find appropriate tasks that the students could perform. Next, the coaches briefed the students about their responsibilities at each job site. Job coaches supervise the students on the job for approximately four hours. The job coach is more than a student supervisor, they act as a liason between the employer and the school.

The students involved in this program are being taught general emplyability skills to help them gain employment and career independence in the future. This important step proceeds independent employment through the Job Placement Program. We feel the ESP Program is vital for those students that need their employability skills raised to a realistic work standard.

Job Placement

1. Evaluation of abilities and readiness for employment including acceptable work attitudes and habits.

2. Appraisal of the degree to which the outcome of training and other services is consistent with anticipated results.

3. Development of a job placement plan for each student tracking.

4. Vocational counseling to provide occupational information that is current and local.

5. Instruction in job seeking and job keeping skills.

6. Determination of the students ability to participate in job seeking activities and entry into employment, anticipation of problems he/she may encounter(application, interview, etc.).

7. Assistance to the job seeker in carrying out his placement plan.

8. Appropriate follow-up with employer and employee on entry into employment and later to assure adjustment to job demands.

UPDATE: Job Placement of Students in Exceptional Education

Surveys conducted of the graduating classess of 1981, 1982 and 1983 revealed that from Polk County's Exceptional Student Population only 19 or 10.6% of the graduates were gainfully employed three months after leaving the school system. In an effort to reverse this trend a job placement program was started at Roosevelt Vocational School. The impact of this program has been reflected by a 54% placement record for 1985, a 64% placement record for 1986, a 72% placement record for 1987 and a 75% placement record for 1988. Full time is 30 hours or more per week. Currently we have 15 seniors working full time of the Class of 1989.

Accomplishments for 1988-1989

The Employability Skills Program began a new job site at Grenelefe Conference and Resort Center. We started with students in housekeeping and the kitchen. Grenelefe staff were extremely pleased with the program and wanted more students for different areas. To comply with their wishes we needed a teacher housed at Grenelefe to teach two required classes. Grenelefe provided Roosevelt with a classroom area and transportation for students between "classroom" and job site. Maximum time can now be spent on the job site and academic requirements will still be achieved. With this partnership we feel we have reached a milestone in linking the public school with the business world.

In both academic and vocational classes, emphasis is placed on buildinga positive self-concept and teaching life mangement and employability skills. Through one of these classes, the "School With A Heart" was conceived. The students and faculty adopted a man with Lou Gehrig's disease. Within four years we have done projects such as raising money for an electric wheel chair, home improvements to make the house wheelchair accessible, and purchasing a VCR and TV. Various newspapers have printed articles about the relationship which has developed between the Arias and Roosevelt. One of the mentioned articles was released through Associated Press. A crew member from NBC read the article which resulted in a three minute presentation on NBC nightly news. A film crew taped Roosevelt students and staff the week before Christmas break. We were busy with car washes, face painting and community projects. Through this experience students have learned to give of themselves to others.

In November Roosevelt was honored with state recognition for their drug-free program. With this came a nomination for a national award which, if received, will be honored by President Bush at the White House in May of 1989.

RURAL TRANSITION PROGRAM SPECIALIST:

TRAINING THE RURAL SPECIALIST

Arline Halper
Joyce Beam

The George Washington University
Department of Teacher Preparation and Special Education

Prepared for the 1989 ACRES-NRSSC Symposium

RURAL TRANSITION PROGRAM SPECIALIST: TRAINING THE RURAL PROFESSIONAL

INTRODUCTION

The George Washington University's Rural Transition Program Specialist training program addresses the need for qualified secondary special education personnel to prepare handicapped youth, residing in a rural area, for the transition from school to work and adult life. A program has been implemented to train rural professionals in the planning, design, implementation and evaluation of the full range of career and educational services for handicapped students.

Research has indicated that preservice preparation programs need to acquaint students with an understanding of the rural school environment, variables affecting service delivery in rural areas and the understanding of community service delivery. This knowledge and training is particularly essential for service providers assisting handicapped youth in the transition from school to work.

Two-thirds of all schools in the United States are in rural areas, and the majority of unserved and underserved handicapped students are located in rural areas. Variables such as scattered population, the presence of subcultures, and lack of community resources influence the ease with which services are delivered.

The transitioning of handicapped youth has become national priority. Obstacles to successful transitioning are found mainly in the areas of existing gaps in interagency cooperation, lack of in-school work-related programs, and insufficiency of follow-up services. In addition, problems unique to rural areas confront the disabled person. These problems include mismatch of curriculum content to life in rural areas, lack of transportation systems, limited employment opportunities, and higher cost of related services as compared to urban areas, due in part to travel requirements and limited personnel resources.

As a result of a grant funded by the Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, thirty-six professionals employed within a tri county area in Maryland are being trained during a three year grant period. These persons are identified as the potential team members for delivering transitional services prior to school exit to handicapped youth and may consist of the special educator, vocational educator, guidance counselor and school administrator. Representatives from vocational rehabilitation and adult service agencies have also received the training.

TRANSITION IN RURAL AREAS

According to an 1984 ACRES study, of rural disabled students who had exited high school, only 14% were on post-secondary job training programs and 23% in integrated employment settings. The largest percentage, however, 63% were placed in segregated settings such as sheltered workshops, group homes, institutions, or with parents. Unfortunately, only 58% of the rural communities surveyed had a job training program designed for disabled post-secondary students (Helge, 1984).

Rural schools and communities have unique strengths which are not found in larger populated areas, such as the "closeness" of the community, networking capabilities and the feeling that "we take care of our own". However, problems in delivering quality special education service delivery are compounded in the sparsely populated areas compared with urban areas. Rural school districts are faced with problems such as low incidence populations, necessary travel for itinerant teachers and limited budgets. In addition, dual roles often limit the time necessary for planning and programming and higher than average personnel turnover present challenges to effective programming.

In rural areas where distance from resources, subcultures present and job possibilities may vary, it is critical that each professional or team design transition services appropriate for their unique setting. Unlike urban areas where community resources are often formalized, the process of surveying the immediate community becomes necessary before services can be designed or implemented. Key community resources and individuals must be contacted for their input in structuring transitional services, as well as developing a network of communication and collaboration between possible employers, parents of handicapped students, post-secondary service providers and the school system.

Effecting change in rural school districts may be made more difficult because "innovators" are perceived as external entities imposing change on the small school. Personnel attempting to improve, or change systems may fail to take into account the unique strengths and weaknesses of the community structure and organization and the necessity to deliver strategies with respect to unique community and district characteristics.

Transition has been defined by Madeline Will (1984), Assistant Secretary for the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services, as the period including high school, the point of leaving school, post-secondary education or adult services and the initial years of employment when a "bridge" is formed between the security of school and the potentials of adulthood. Transition requires secure foundations both in secondary special and vocational education services and employment opportunities. Transition needs should be considered for all students with disabilities as they leave the school system.

In an attempt to explore solutions to problems in developing

rural Transition services, a more comprehensive definition of transition including the areas of leisure, housing, and personal-social skills must be employed. Emphasizing these skill areas in school-based settings will facilitate transition and help to ensure a productive adult life. Presenting skills only to success in the employment area does not ensure that daily living and survival skills will be mastered.

Much attention has been focused on appropriate content curriculum for disabled youth. The need for functional academics, career education, and vocational education has been emphasized. Many advocates of the career education approach recognize the similarities between the transition approach and sound curriculum leading to independent and satisfying lives for the disabled (Brolin, 1985).

Rural secondary programs should adopt the philosophy of career education, vocational training, and work-related experiences for young adults. Transition programs should be attuned to the specific needs of clients in their rural setting. Key components (based on Beam, 1986) should include:

* identifying competencies needed for success in the rural setting;

* matching the secondary school curriculum to available employment opportunities;

* identifying adult service providers and incorporating the "how to " of accessing services for parents and students into the school program;

* implementing a work program which uses placements within the community vs. those in simulated school experiences; and

* conducting instruction whenever possible in community-based settings.

Results from a study by Hasazi, Gordon, and Roe (1985), indicate that educational and vocational experiences do influence employment status following graduation or exit from school. The study's findings support the inclusion of these components in students IEPs, and subsequently, their individualized transition plans.

Rural and urban areas are facing the transition issue as our disabled youth exit the public school system. Productive adult life for the handicapped and the creation of positive attitudes by the community towards these adults are common goals in all geographic locations. The disabled youth or adult in a rural area faces problems which must be addressed at the local level. Specific questions need to be addressed by education, business, parent, and citizen groups, to develop a needs assessment that will aid in the transition process. Possible avenues for improved service delivery need to be explored as a collaborative

community effort.

Disabled youth and adults will face many unforseen challenges as they exit the school program. Service providers must develop transition programs with realistic goals and coordinated community services to assist them to reach their full potential. The future holds promise for the disabled if existing barriers to a fully mainstreamed adult life can be overcome.

TEACHER PREPARATION NEEDS

Teacher preparation concerns resulting from transition are closely related to the national priority of training in vocational/career special education. The U.S. Department of Education has funded both preservice and inservice projects throughout the country to prepare the range of personnel needed to fit all the service delivery pieces together. An investigation of the most effective training strategies utilized by vocational/career special education personnel preparation projects, yielded the following conclusions:

* training should focus on real problems;

* interdisciplinary groups should be involved in training;

* trainees should be assisted in developing communication networks;

* resource materials should be collected for easy access by trainees; and

* a variety of training environments can be effective.

Personnel preparation programs have the potential and responsibility to act as catalyst in a process of planned change in the career/vocational and transitional programming for handicapped individuals. This change cannot take place without the interdisciplinary communication and involvement of business and industry. Models for school based service delivery and university-based degree program are similar. Just as adequate carer/vocational programming for handicapped students cannot be accomplished in isolation, quality preservice programs cannot follow traditional disciplinary training. Training audiences as well as training environments must reflect the diverse nature of career/vocational and transitional programming. It is the responsibility of university training programs to respond to identified national, state and locate needs by developing and delivering personnel preparation programs that reflect identified quality retraining factors.

STATE & LOCAL PERSONNEL NEEDS

In the State of Maryland, the most current personnel development plan identified the need to train/retrain special education and vocational education personnel to facilitate transitional services. In order to accommodate its 93,296 handicapped students, the State Education Agency anticipates a need for 166 additional trained special education personnel and 12 additional vocational education teachers. Additional personnel training needs will result from Maryland's new special education certification requirement. In addition, the Maryland State Department of Education personnel assignments also reflect a commitment to improve secondary and transitional programming for handicapped individuals. Six interdisciplinary professionals within the state department have been projected to work with LEA's to assist in developing better coordination for transitional services. These areas of specialization include: special education, vocational-technical education, vocational rehabilitation and guidance.

In a 1988 personnel preparation survey conducted by George Washington University, special education and vocational education administrators of local school districts were asked to identify the types of training needs their education agency had in transition. Eleven of the twelve special education administrators surveyed discussed the need for practical training to meet the diverse needs of transition programming. This included training on how to develop long range plans, how to implement community-based instruction and how to develop linkages when students exit school.

In that survey, twelve vocational education administrators reported the need for training vocational education teachers on a variety of teaching methodologies appropriate for the diverse needs of students in their classes. Three administrators noted the need for training to work collaboratively with other service providers. When asked to identify the major competencies they desired in personnel they supervised, special education administrators identified collaboration skills most often, while vocational education administrators identified implementation of direct services as the competency most desired among personnel they supervised.

At the local tri county area within Maryland, the LEA's are expanding and redefining vocational/special education specialists positions to include the development of ongoing career education and transitional plans. In order to effectively follow the mandates of the Carl Perkins Vocational Education Act and the 1983 Amendments to the Education for All Handicapped Act, LEA's need qualified professionals who have the knowledge and skills needed to work with a myriad of service providers, both in schools and in the community. Effective transitional services can only be provided by professionals who know how to overcome barriers in interdisciplinary/interagency collaboration. Specialized interdisciplinary training in vocational/special

education is an effective means to improved transitional services.

PROGRAM GOALS

The Rural Transition Program Specialist project is a three year project grant funded by the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services. There are two major goals for the grant: to develop and disseminate a training manual with a parent training module which will facilitate the delivery of appropriate transitional services for handicapped youth in rural environments; and to provide preservice training to a multidisciplinary group of professionals so that their expertise can be applied for the planning, design, implementation and evaluation of the full range of career and educational services for handicapped youth residing in a rural area.

The training program consists of a four course sequence (12 credit hours) to be offered during the course of one funding year. Twelve professionals who are employed in rural settings within a tri county area in Maryland receive the training for each of three years. Upon completion of the course sequence, the students receive certificates indicating their proficiency as Rural Transition Program Specialists.

The purpose of the manual is to provide a practical guide for the training of Rural Transition Program Specialists who will be able to impact their local rural area. The training materials may also be used by school districts and post-secondary institutions for inservice/staff development purposes in the area of transition. In addition, the resource materials may be used by rural school systems as a guide in the individual designing of rural transition service delivery systems.

The purpose of the parent training module is to provide an example of a resource guide that rural districts could develop to assist parents in planning the secondary student's transition from school to work and adult life in that unique community.

The trainees are the potential team members for delivering transitional services to handicapped students and may consist of the special educator, guidance counselor, vocational educator and adult service provider. Upon completion of the training, participants implement their unique design within their school setting and inservice additional school staff as well. In addition, administrative personnel who receive the training have the potential for addressing transitional issues within the framework of school and district policy.

THE TRAINING PROGRAM

The training objectives of the project include three areas:

1. To facilitate the participation of handicapped secondary students in vocational programs and employment opportunities by increasing the number of professionals with knowledge of rural service delivery and competency to provide effective transitional services;

2. To develop a mutual understanding of diverse rural school and community based personnel concerning their respective roles, philosophies, policies and practices;

3. To provide individuals servicing the secondary handicapped student an opportunity to reach beyond traditional practices and approaches through identification of specific needs of handicapped youth and adults residing in rural areas, exploration of new methodologies for servicing this population, and development of new methodology and techniques which will be applicable to other rural settings implementing and providing transitional services.

During the three year period, 36 professionals who are employed in rural settings within a tri county area in Maryland will be trained. Instruction is given on-site in the tri county area. This transitional training is unique in its design and scope. The selection of highly qualified individuals affect the overall impact of the project. Whenever possible, interdisciplinary teams would be identified to be trained. Upon completion of the training, the team/individuals would implement their design within their setting and inservice additional staff as well.

Participants can directly use this coursework to meet Maryland State Certification requirements in Secondary Special Education. The training will also serve an inservice function by upgrading the skills of individuals who may already be in positions to provide transitional services to individuals who are handicapped. The certificate earned at the conclusion of the four course sequence signifies a training focus in rural transition programming and the coursework can fulfill state and professional standards by direct application to state certification and potential completion of a Masters in Transitional Special Education with Departmental approval.

While it was originally envisioned that only school based professionals would be targeted as trainees, during the course of the first two years of the project, qualified individuals from vocational rehabilitation and adult service agencies were also selected as participants. Their participation increased the possibility of interagency communication and mutual understanding

of priorities and procedures between agencies as well the expansion of a network of primary contacts within the rural community for the purpose of successfully transitioning handicapped youth from school to adult life.

INTERNSHIPS

In congruence with effective training strategies for special education and transitional personnel, the professional internship allows participants the opportunity to synthesize and implement the information acquired in the training program in practical training experiences. Projects and products generated by the practicum have the potential for making a long range impact on effective transition practices in the area. Staff development programs, parent training and resource manuals, transportation access models, self-advocacy curriculum designs, employer attitude surveys and workshops on the handicapped for the business community are examples of internship activities and products developed by first year students.

The practicum contributed to the formation of transition teams and county-wide networking systems. Each student "graduate" of the first grant year presently functions as a resource person to subsequent interns, thereby expanding the potential for trained transition teams in this geographic areas.

EVALUATION AND DISCUSSION

Following the completion of the first year, evaluation instruments were analyzed in order to refine the training prog.am to insure maximum effectiveness. Program evaluations by the twelve "graduates" indicated an overwhelming satisfaction with the program. Major strengths which were identified included: selection of instructors, networking opportunities, relevancy of assignments, targeted issues related to transition in the rural setting, and accessibility of courses to students. In addition, the opportunity to specialize within a short time frame was recognized as an substantial advantage of this program. Students were asked to rank the courses in order of their value to them. The two courses based in practical experience: accessing and designing community systems, and professional internship in transition, were most frequently selected as a first choice by students.

Employers of first year students were interviewed six months after completion of the program to determine the impact of the training program on job performance. Employers reported that graduates adjusted their curriculum to include functional academics and career education, shared information relating to transition issues with colleagues, and expanded their interactions with adult service providers.

Modifications which were made in the second grant year as a result of the evaluation process included: scheduling adjustments, substitution of an applied assignment for a research

paper in the introductory course, and an expansion of the internship experience to include an option for a specific placement in a transition related agency.

The Rural Transition program is meeting a critical need in the tri county area of southern Maryland. The courses are practical in nature and evaluations were overwhelming positive. Qualified secondary special, guidance, administrative and vocational education personnel are being trained to plan and implement programs needed to prepare rural handicapped youth to become productive and independent citizens.

Appendix 1

THE FOUR COURSE SEQUENCE

THE FOUR COURSE SEQUENCE

The following course sequence describe the scope and sequence of courses to be offered during each funding year:

SPED 236 Intrcduction to Rural Transition Programs

An overview of rural transition programs and issues associated with service delivery. The course provides an understanding of factors involved in the career development of the handicapped individual and an awareness of options available after school exit for a variety of handicapping conditions.

SPED 233 Curriculum in Transitional Special Education

Theory and practice in planning, implementing, developing and evaluating curriculum content to lifestyles within the rural setting. Exploration of techniques and materials appropriate for handicapped adolescents and adults.

SPED 221 Assessing and Designing Community Systems for the Handicapped Youth

An overview of the health, social and educational services that exist within the rural community. The course provides an understanding of how best to integrate the handicapped youth with these services, and overview of systems theory and its application to health, educational and social services. Emphasis on consideration for rural delivery planning.

SPED 295 Professional Internship in Supportive Training, Transition and Educational Planning

Supervised field experience focusing on providing transition service delivery within the rural setting. This practicum will be individually planned to meet each student's needs and interests within the framework of transitional service delivery in rural settings. A major product will be developed as a result of this experience which will be of professional quality and practical in use.

Appendix 11

COMPETENCIES

COMPETENCIES

Upon completion of the four course sequence, participants will be able to :

Competency 1

Design and deliver competent transitional services appropriate for the rural school system and subculture in which they will be implemented.

Subcompetencies:

A. Identify and describe community issues in rural areas which impact development of transition services for handicapped youth and adults:

* community leadership;
* school financing;
* structure of school services;
* business;
* cultural diversity;
* isolation/population sparsity;
* pace of life;
* geographic barriers;
* community communication and power structures.

B. Interact with parents of handicapped adolescents to communicate vocational and transition needs and services.

C. Initiate and develop successful job placement programs through:

* a needs analysis of the community work force;
* matching curriculum content to available jobs in the community;
* identification of entry level/enabling skills, and monitoring of career choices and interests of handicapped youth.

D. Develop strategies to eliminate or lessen barriers faced by persons with handicaps residing in rural areas.

E. Identify components of successful transitional services for students of varying handicapping conditions.

F. Identify and describe procedures for accessing community transitional services.

G. Interpret research findings and relate them to the development of transition planning in the rural setting.

Competency 2

Design and effectively implement collaboration efforts with transition service providers, post-secondary programs and employers.

Subcompetencies:

A. Identify specific service delivery models that have been effective in servicing rural handicapped students.

B. Develop Individual Transitional Plans that incorporate career, vocational and transitional objectives.

C. To describe the implications of:

P.L. 98-524 The Carl Perkins Vocational Act of 1983;
P.L. 98-199 Education of the Handicapped Amendments of 1983;
P.L. 98-221 Rehabilitation Amendments of 1984;
P.L. 97-300 The Job Training Partnership Act;
P.L. 94-142 Education of the Handicapped Act; and
P.L. 93-112 The Rehabilitation Amendments of 1973.

D. Relate federal mandates to state and local education agency policies and procedures for transitional services.

E. Develop components of effective interdisciplinary and interagency cooperation including formal cooperative agreements with Rehabilitation, Vocational Education, Career Education, Guidance, Business/Industry personnel, JTPA, community colleges and multi-service community centers.

F. Attain both oral and written skills to function in effectively developing collaborative efforts.

G. Design, implement and evaluate in-service programming to effect.

H. Develop and analyze related professional presentation skills.

Competency 3

Develop a range of career and vocational competencies necessary for designing individual transition planning for rural handicapped students.

Subcompetencies:

A. Describe the secondary curricula needs of handicapped students.

B. Design, adapt and implement career/vocational and academic curricula for secondary level handicapped students.

C. Identify specific intervention strategies, techniques and resources for secondary, post-secondary, business, and community programming for individuals who are handicapped.

REFERENCES

Beam, J.(1986). Factors in the development of rural transition programs. Rural Special Education Quarterly, 6 (4), 2-7.

Brolin, D. E. (1978). Life centered career education: A competency based approach. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children. (pp. 7-13).

Hasazi, S.B., Gordon, L.R., Roe, C.A. (1985). Factors associated with the employment status of handicapped youth exiting high school from 1979-1983. Exceptional Children, 51, 455-469.

Helge, D. (1984). Rural Transition Program Needs for Students with Disabilities. Rural Special Education Quarterly, 5 (2), 2-4.

Will, M. (1984). OSERS programming for the transition of youth with disabilities: Bridges from school to working life. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services.

Kathryn Wolff Heller, M.Ed.
Institute Training Coordinator
Department of Special Education
Georgia State University
Atlanta, Georgia 30303

A MODEL FOR PROVIDING TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE FOR EDUCATORS OF STUDENTS WITH SEVERE HANDICAPS IN RURAL AREAS

Abstract: This paper discusses a model for providing technical assistance to teachers of students with severe/profound mental handicaps who teach in rural areas. The model, known as the Institute for Educators of Students with Severe/Profound Mental Handicaps is presently in its second successful year in the state of Georgia. Its unique design provides a practicum and methods course during the summer with follow-up visits to the participants' actual classrooms during the school year. The model design, its evaluation data, strengths and weaknesses and administrative concerns for implementation are addressed.

There is a critical shortage of appropriately trained teachers of students with severe/profound mental handicaps in rural areas. In addition to an identified national shortage of teachers in the area of severe handicaps (U.S. Department of Education, 1987), one national survey found that out of 57 jurisdictions surveyed, 48 commented on the lack of special education teacher's skills relating to developing Individualized Education Plans (IEPs), participating in multidisciplinary team meetings and understanding due process (McLlaughlin, Valdivieso, Spence, & Fuller, 1988). Compounding this problem is the additional lack of training of teachers for the unique needs found in rural areas (McIntosh & Raymond, 1988; Helge, 1984).

In the state of Georgia, a critical need for teachers of students with severe/profound mental handicaps in local school districts outside the metropolitan Atlanta area has been documented through various state Department of Education manpower reports, Local Education Agency (LEA) Comprehension Plans and reports of the Comprehensive System of Personal Development (CSPD) statewide analysis. These sources have shown that 20% of the teachers of students with severe and profound mental handicaps have provisional certification or are not yet fully certified. Additionally, a two year turn over rate for teachers outside metro-Atlanta as well as an increasing number of students with severe and profound mental handicaps being placed in the public school system has attributed to this critical need for teachers. Since Georgia State University is the only degree program in the state in the area of severe handicaps, funds were requested to help meet this personnel training need.

A Special Projects grant from OSERS, Division of Personnel Preparation was awarded to Georgia State University to implement a model titled the Institute for Educators of Students with Severe and Profound Mental Handicaps (the Institute). The Institute's main objective is to provide training in instructional methods to teachers of students with severe and profound mental handicaps who are employed by LEAs outside metro-Atlanta. This project, which began in June 1987, is presently in the process of training its second group of teachers and has shown itself to be an effective model which could easily be replicated in other states.

MODEL DESIGN

The Institute for Educators of Students with Severe and Profound Mental Handicaps primarily consists of three major components. The first component involves the participant selection process and the participant's preparatory activities. This is followed by a summer program which is the second component of the model. The summer program provides the participants with a methods course covering state-of-the-art techniques for students with severe/profound mental handicaps as well as a practicum to provide hands-on experience. The third component consists of follow-up visits to the participants' own classrooms during the school year. This component provides the participants with assistance in applying the newly acquired skills to the teacher's own students and with his/her own particular community resources.

This model is designed to promote the participants' mastery of a set of competencies. These competencies include assessment techniques, appropriate IEP development, behavior management, curriculum development, vocational training, community based instruction, materials and equipment development, data collection and instructional formats. The activities and competencies in which the participants engage are based on a set of assumptions of current best practice for the education of students with severe and profound mental handicaps. This includes: a) curriculum objectives and activities which are functional and age appropriate for community integration activities; b) design and selection of objectives for functional needs of current and future placement in least restrictive settings; c) placement in an integrated, age appropriate public school campus and d) the principle of partial participation.

Participants and preparatory activities

Each year the LEAs are notified and participant nominees are requested. Ten teachers are selected each year based upon joint decisions of the State Education Agency (SEA) and the Project staff. Participant selection is based on the teacher: a) having no previous training in severe handicaps, b) presently teaching (or is hired to teach) a severe or profound mentally handicapped class, c) teaching outside metro-Atlanta and d) making a commitment to teach in a severe /profound classroom for at least one year after participating in the Institute.

After the participants have been selected and notified, they are sent a reading list and study questions on behavior analysis and assessment. Since the teachers come with varied experience and knowledge, this preparatory activity is designed to aid the teachers in targeting areas of study for review which will be helpful in preparing for the summer.

Summer Component

During the summer session, participants come to the metro-Atlanta area to engage in a seven week program which provides training for the teachers through didactic and practicum activities. During their first week, the study questions they received prior to the summer institute are reviewed. They also have lectures and discussions regarding state of the art techniques in educating students with severe and profound handicaps (methods course). For the remainder of the six weeks, the methods course is continued in the afternoons. During the mornings the the teachers participate in a cooperative summer school program for students with severe and profound

mental handicaps in Dekalb County, GA, under the direct supervision of Georgia State University faculty and Institute staff.

The practicum component consists of 138 contact hours with approximately sixty students with severe handicaps, with chronological ages from six to twenty-one years. Each participant chooses a specific class to instruct from 8:30 a.m. to 12:30 p.m. daily. From 12:30 p.m. to 1:30 p.m., the participants work with other classes on a rotational basis. During the last two weeks of the practicum, they are required to instruct in at least two alternative classes during the morning session. This provides the participants an opportunity to work with a wide range of physical involvements, behavior patterns and chronological ages as well as the ability to "try out" new techniques they have learned in their methods course with a variety of students. All participants are also required to instruct adolescent students in a least one community vocational training site as well as employ community based instruction under the supervision of a designated instructor. To promote an exchange of ideas, the participants team-teach their classes with university master students who are engaged in their practicum experience.

The participants develop summer objectives for each student in the class based on student and ecological assessments, as well as information provided by the regular year teachers. As part of their instructional activities, each participant implements various instruction methodologies, e.g. task analysis, time delay, prompting strategies, self-operated prompting systems, and ongoing data collection and interpretation. Instructional formats include one-to-one and small and large group instruction. Additionally, each participant is required to prepare age- appropriate, functional teaching materials, and use adaptive and communication equipment.

The methods course provides 115 hours of lectures on state of the art techniques in the field for severe and profound mental handicaps. Lectures are presented by professorial staff as well as by specialists in physical therapy, speech-language therapy and adapted physical education. An on site physical therapist is also provided when the students are present. Besides having the specialists present to impart knowledge of their field, the specialists give the participants as opportunity to work with them in developing activities and objectives for the students in their particular field in order to provide participants the experience of being a member of a transdisiplinary team.

Follow-up Component

Since the participating teachers work in rural settings, it is important that they learn how to adapt the principles and techniques to their own students in their particular setting. To aid in this endeavor as well as to ensure generalization of the material, a minimum of three follow-up visits are provided where one of the Institute's staff goes to the teacher's actual classroom during the school year. Technical assistance and feedback is provided to the teacher as well as assistance in setting up community skills training programs and vocational work sites. At the end of the follow-up component, participants are encouraged to continue to contact the staff at Georgia State University if questions arise and they are also invited to join a regional consortium. The participants also receive a newsletter specifically designed for teachers of students with severe/profound mental handicaps and have been invited to contribute to the newsletter.

Evaluation Component

Each year, evaluations are administered covering the preparatory activities, participant's acquisition and generalization of the competencies and effectiveness of the project. The first evaluation component consists of an objective test on the preparatory reading list, upon the participants' arrival to the summer session. IEP objectives which the participants have written during their school year are collected at this time for comparative evaluation at a later time.

The second evaluation area assesses the participant's acquisition and generalization of the competencies. On an objective level, there are examinations given at the summer site covering the material presented during the methods course. As part of the integrated evaluation process of the competencies, the participants design and implement at least two task programs and specific programming for targeted students during the summer institute. Participants are also required to prepare a paper on community/functional training in a curriculum area of their interest. Teachers of adolescent age students are requested to do their papers on community based vocational training.

The follow-up component addresses evaluation of the participant's generalization of the competencies. This is partially accomplished through the requirement of constructing three task programs to be used with their students. A paper on how to program for generalization of specific areas of instruction in their own classroom is required as well.

Evaluation of the participant's applied teaching ability is examined through observations of the participants' teaching. The practicum checklist form used during the summer evaluates such areas as: selection of appropriate instruction objectives for modification of behavioral deficits and behavioral excesses, selection of observation techniques, selection of instructional stimuli, development and selection of intervention strategies, intervention, data collection, programming for generalization, instructional evaluation and group instruction, organization of activities, dealing with emergencies professionalism. The form used during follow-up visits, known as the Classroom Review Checklist form, includes such areas as: assessment, curriculum, IEP objectives, parental and therapist input, schedule and instructional formats, instructional techniques, data collection, adapted positioning, instructional material, teacher's classroom behavior, interaction with on-handicapped and use of paraprofessional. Although both forms provided the necessary feedback to the participants, the second summer of the project substituted the Classroom Review Checklist form instead of the original practicum form due to the participants' suggestions and to provide greater continuity of feedback.

Through classroom and follow-up observations, feedback is provided to the participants verbally, as well as through the evaluation forms. Additionally, the participants have some of their instruction video taped during the summer session. Upon seeing the playback, the participants are provided with additional feedback and discussion.

The third evaluation component is regarded as an examination of the project. This consists of four major elements. The first, which reflects the successfulness of the project, is the number of participants to successfully meet criteria for mastery of the competencies. The second element is the results of the participant's post training evaluation form. This evaluation is partially given at the end of the summer institute to assess any deficiencies as well as at the end of the follow-up visits. The evaluation covers preparatory activities, summer institute, follow-up training, competencies,

teaching procedures and staff. A third evaluation is made of the pre- and post-training by evaluating the IEP objectives. This is based upon Hunt, Goetz, and Anderson's rating sheet for IEP analysis. Finally, there is an Advisory Committee review.

RESULTS OF YEARS 1 AND 2

Participants and Preparatory activities

Thirty-six nominations were received for the first year and forty-five nominations for the second year. From this pool of nominations, ten participants were selected for the first year and, due to budget limitations, nine for the second year in accordance with stated criteria. Selected teachers were from locations distributed throughout the state of Georgia and with a mean of 2.5 years of experience teaching students with severe or profound mental handicaps.

On the first day of the summer institute, the participants were tested on study questions they had received, based on the text they were to have read prior to their arrival. Scores ranged from 66 to 97 for the first year and from 62 to 94 on the second year. Four participants fell below the minimum 85% standard they were to achieve in the first year and two participants were below this level in the second year. The first year participants demonstrated that many of the concepts regarding behavior modification were known, but they were unfamiliar with the terminology and certain elements of data collection. The second year's participants were more scattered in their deficiencies. Individual review of the deficient areas were conducted as well as group lecture and review with additional reading as indicated.

Summer and Follow-up Components

To aid in evaluating the teachers' knowledge of the principles and techniques taught during the methods course, examinations were given. The first year participants all achieved passing scores on their exams with most scoring in the high B to low A range. Seven of the second year participants scored well, falling into the A and B range. However, two students had difficulty with the exams and made unacceptable scores. Additional individual review was given covering the deficit areas. The two teachers who had difficulty with the exams, showed systematic increases in their applied skills in the classroom during the summer.

There was an increase in performance for each area of the practicum evaluation forms from the interim scores to the final evaluation for all participants. During the first summer, the mean group score in the practicum evaluation form showed the greatest improvement in the areas of selecting appropriate skills from assessment, selecting instructional stimuli, selection of observation techniques, use of data collection and programming for generalization. The least amount of increase was in general professionalism which was already high (See figure 1). The second summer substituted the Classroom Review Checklist. Areas of greatest improvement were assessment, curriculum development, instructional techniques and data collection (See figure 2). Both forms reflected fairly high scores for the interim period, with even better results from the end of the summer evaluation. The fairly high interim scores can at least be partially attributed to the teachers having already received guidance in their practicum in developing appropriate instructional programming for the students in their assigned classroom. To more accurately demonstrate the teacher's level of improvement, the teacher's performance should be evaluated at the

beginning of the practicum experience as well as the interim and final evaluations. However, an initial evaluation would still be influenced by the lectures and discussions preceding it.

When examining the first year participant's performance on the Classroom Review Checklist for the follow-up visits, there is a high degree of maintenance found during the first follow-up visit of the competencies acquired during the summer institute. An increase in each category is present by the last follow-up visit. (See figure 3). Areas showing the greatest increase include scheduling, instructional formats, instructional techniques and interaction with non-handicapped peers. The second year participants have not as yet completed their follow-up visits, although it appears that they also have achieved a high degree of maintenance at this point.

The follow-up visits have provided assistance to the teachers in aiding them to implement the skills and strategies learned over the summer to their own classroom. During these visits assistance, instruction, and feedback concerning the following points arose: a) assistance in planning the class schedules, b) confirmation of functional goals and objectives; c) interventions for maladaptive behaviors; d) implementation of various teaching techniques; e) planning an implementation of community instruction; f) specific compensatory strategies for motor and sensory impairments; g) interaction activities with non-handicapped, and h) individualized development of materials, e.g., microswitches, and adjustment of adaptive equipment. Additional information concerning these points and additional follow-up on problematic areas was covered on subsequent visits.

Program evaluation

The 1987-88 participants completed questionnaires to evaluate the Institute in its entirety. A Likert scale was utilized with 1 being "strongly agree" and 5 being "strongly disagree". The mean scores were above 2.0 except for a mean score of 2.1 for facilities. For the second year participants, a preliminary evaluation of the various aspects of the summer program was completed prior to the participants' departure from Atlanta. The mean scores of the participants ranged from 1.1 to 2.1. In the written comments there was a suggestion for additional follow-up visits.

To compare pre- and post-training, a comparison is made between the participants' IEP's they had written prior to their participation in the Institute with those they have written afterwards. The IEP is evaluated across curriculum areas with each goal being rated a 1 if it meets the criteria of an indicator of best practices, or a 0 if it is not present. An increase in each category is present with significant increases in programming for generalization and perfect scores in teaching with age appropriate materials and working on basic skills. The interaction activity is slightly higher than before training, but remains low. Although there was usually some type of interaction planned with non-handicapped peers as reflected on the follow-up visit graph, this was not planned for on the IEPs. Further information and consultation was provided in that area to the participants and was emphasized to the second year participants.

All of the first year participants have successfully met the criteria for mastery of competencies.

DISCUSSION AND PROGRAM ADAPTATIONS

The model's greatest strength is its two component format. The seven week summer institute allows the teacher the opportunity to be exposed to a large range of students, and receive quality instruction from the professorial

staff of Georgia State University and various experts in pertinent fields. The second component of follow-up visits provide the teacher with technical assistance in applying and adapting the techniques to their own classroom.

The greatest weakness of the project is the inability of some teachers to participate due to the length of a seven week institute. Several alterations could be made to the model to alleviate this potential problem. The summer institute could be offered for less time. Practicum time could be decreased to accommodate a redistribution of lecture time to result in an overall shortened program. Further practical experience could be provided by increasing the follow-up visits to the participants' classrooms. Further cuts in the material covered could further decrease the length of the summer stay and the material could be presented at the time of follow-up visits specifically adapted for the participant's own classroom. An alternate design could be to have the participants meet for three weeks prior to the students arrival and have a shortened practicum. This has the advantage of familiarizing the participants with most of the principles and techniques to allow them to select the appropriate instructional technique, curriculum, or material which they have just learned. When the majority of the methods course is given concomitantly with the practicum, the teacher learns some techniques near the end of the summer which may have been useful at the beginning of the practicum. However, if the practicum is shortened to accommodate this variation, the participant has the disadvantage of not being able to try out all of the newly learned techniques and not seeing the effects of these techniques.

Although this model has been successfully implemented using a major university in an urban area, the Institute model could be modified to allow for successful implementation in varied settings with differing needs and resources. If the model is offered in regional areas, the difficulty of being away from home for seven weeks would be alleviated since this would allow the participants to drive to and from the Institute in a reasonable amount of time. When setting up a summer practicum, an enrichment program could be offered at a community church or recreational center for a half-day. This program could optionally consist of a range of mental handicaps (mild to profound) as well as students without disabilities to promote appropriate peer interactions and further the teacher's experience in integrated programming. If an enrollment fee is used, the money collected could help pay for operating costs. The teachers could be informed to bring material from their own classrooms to be used during the practicum. The participants could work with these students for a half-day. Institute staff could provide the methods course in the afternoon.

If having teachers participate in a summer program is not feasible, an alternate model could be adopted. Regional Host Classrooms around the state could be selected where teachers from surrounding counties meet two days a month and receive technical assistance. During each meeting, the teachers receive training in state of the art techniques in severe handicaps and are provided applied experiences with the students in the classroom. This model is currently being implemented in the state of Georgia through the Bureau for Students with Severe Handicaps. It is funded through a state grant and is housed and directed from Georgia State University. This alternative model has the advantage of reaching a larger number of students in a school year as well as avoiding the problem of not being able to commit to a seven week summer institute. However, the Institute model provides more experience with a larger variety of students as well as having the methods course taught by professorial staff and other experts in the field. Also the

Institute has the advantage of having the follow-up in the teacher's own classroom which allows individual problem solving and teaching with the teacher's own students. It is possible that a combination of the two models may be the most appropriate for some situations.

The Institute model can be replicated exactly as it has been presented or the the proposed adaptations can be made. Although certain components of the model can be used by teacher and teacher trainer to enhance their program, providing the methods course and practicum experience without providing individualized follow-up in their classroom is considered incomplete. Only by providing additional follow-up and training which addresses the teacher's particular needs in his/her own classroom and community, can there be assured an increase in competency. Replication of the model will aid in providing appropriate, quality educational services to students with severe/profound handicaps (or other low incidence populations) in rural areas as well as direct practical applications to teachers and trainers of teachers.

References

Helge, D. (1984). The state of the art in rural special education. Exceptional Children, 50, 294-305.

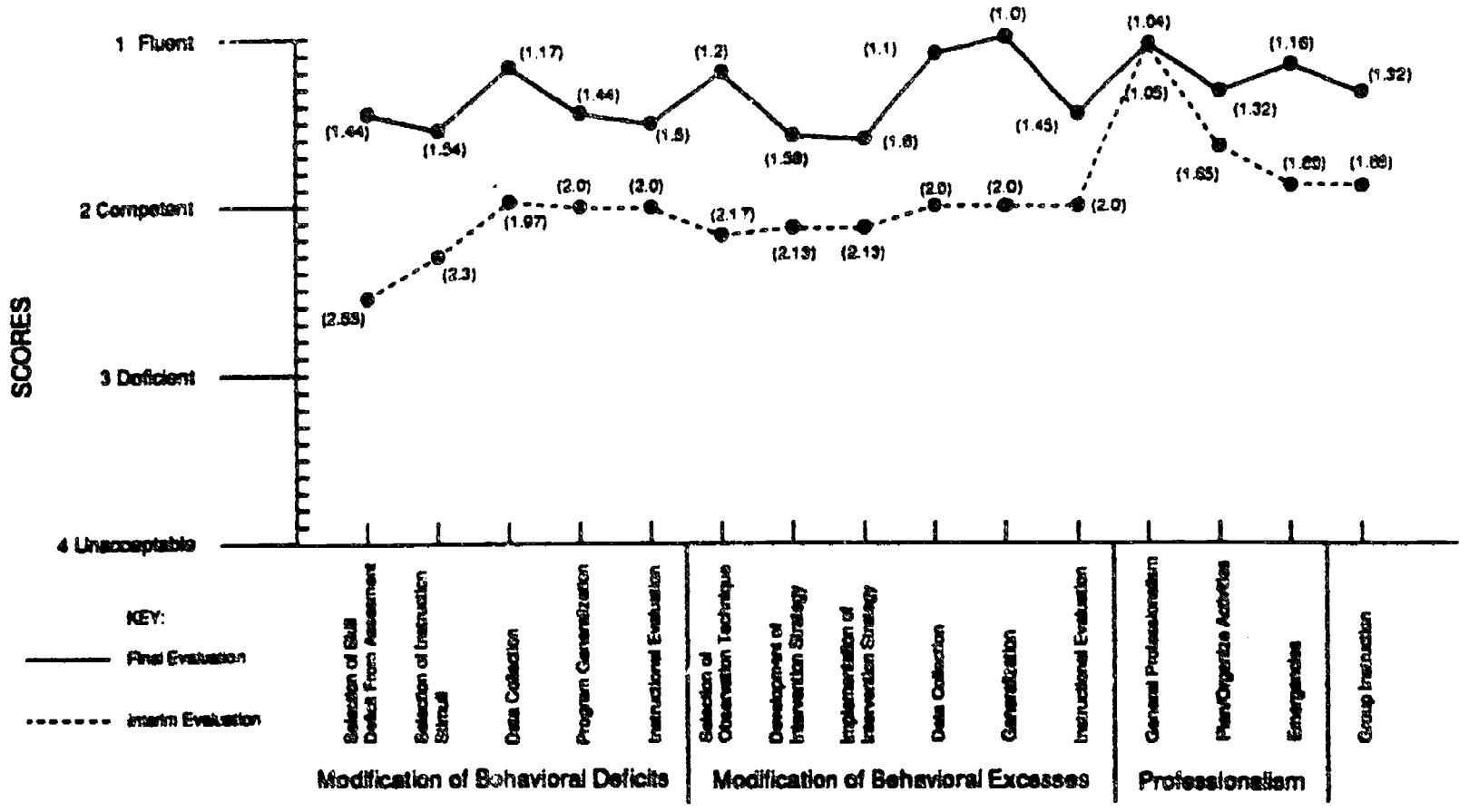
Hunt, P., Goetz, L., & Anderson, J. (1986). The quality of IEP objectives associated with placement on integrated versus segregated school sites. The Journal of The Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps, 11, 125-130.

McLaughlin, M., Valdivieso, C., Spence, K., & Fuller B. (1988). Special education teacher preparation: A synthesis of four research studies. Exceptional Children, 55, 215-221.

U. S. Department of Education. (1987). To assure a free appropriate public education of all handicapped children: Ninth annual report of Congress on the implementation of the Education of the Handicapped Act. Washington, D.C.,: Author.

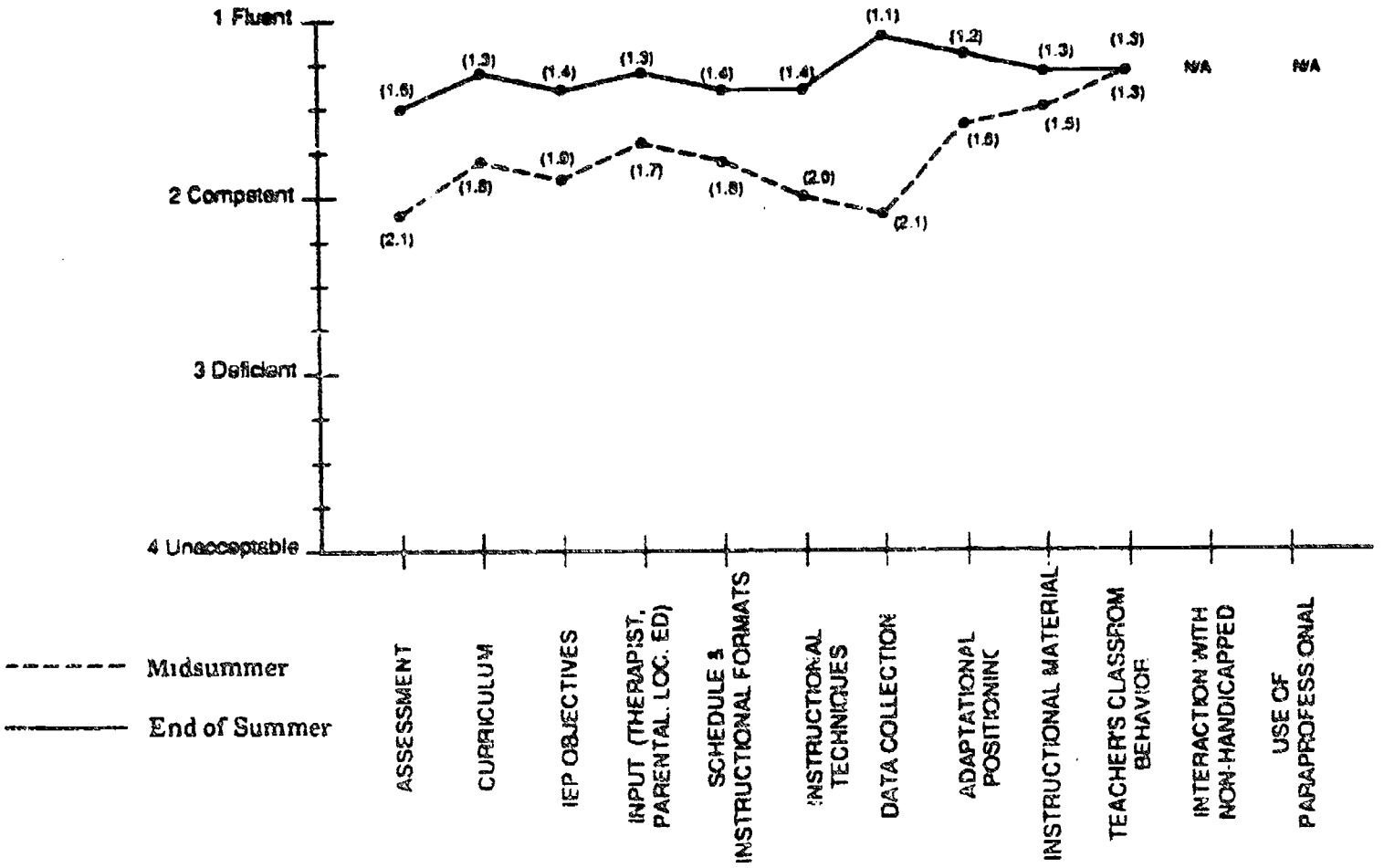
McIntosh, D. & Raymond, G. (1988). Training special education teachers in rural areas: A viable model. Rural Special Education Quarterly, 9, 2-5.

Technical Assistance Model



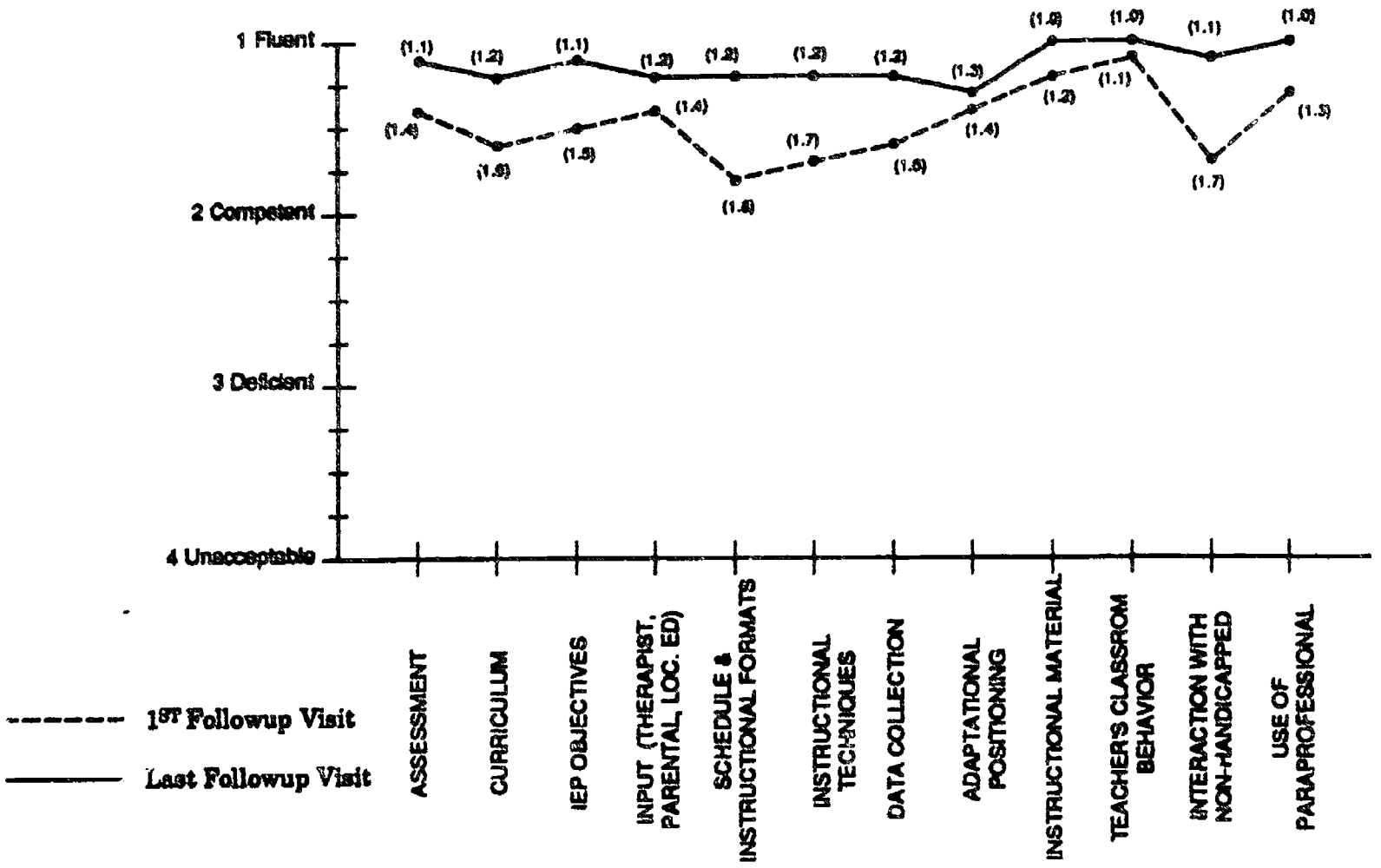
Evaluation of Teacher Performance During Summer Program, 1987

Figure 1



Evaluation of Teacher Performance During Summer Program, 1988

Figure 2



Evaluation of Teacher Performance During Follow-up Visits, 1987-1988

Figure 3

Take Two: Lessons in Program Revision

A Paper Presented
at ACRES Conference, 1989

Aimee Howley
West Virginia Institute of Technology

Submitted to ERIC CRESS
April 10, 1990

Purpose

This paper reports a case study; its purpose is to illustrate the process and outcome of a program evaluation in one rural district. The case is a typical one: a rural district uncertain about the effectiveness of its programs for academically talented students. The results of the program evaluation are also characteristic; they show the way in which the effectiveness of programs for gifted and talented students can reflect diverse factors within both the school and the community.

This case study shows how school programs in a rural district developed and changed. It is, therefore, rooted in a real context; its actors are real school people; and their decisions reflect individual and cultural values and personal foibles. Like most case studies, this one relies on an observer's account of events. Such an account necessarily invades the privacy of a group of people. It justifies this presumption on the grounds that it can--through its detailed reporting of real events--illustrate general principles about organizational behavior. In reporting about particular persons and events, however, this case study does try to preserve the anonymity of the actors and protect the privacy of their context.

Context

District X is a relatively stable school district in the west-central region of an Appalachian state. It is stable

for a number of reasons:

(1) It has an industrial tax base that assures adequate funding for education.

(2) Its proximity to moderate-sized metropolitan areas has insulated it from dramatic population losses.

(3) Its distance from these same metropolitan areas has protected it from dramatic population influxes.

(4) Its board of education concerns itself primarily with policy and, consequently, limits its involvement with the routine administration of schools.

(5) Its central office staff is comprised primarily of locals, many of whom were raised in the county.

Within the last fifteen years, however, the school district has experienced some turmoil. The three superintendents who have had successive tenures during the period held different views about the purpose of education and, hence, each emphasized different school programs. The second of these superintendents (Superintendent B) made the greatest number of changes to the various programs (e.g., gifted, honors, A.P. programs) that purported to address the needs of academically talented students.

Background

As one of his primary goals, Superintendent B sought to advance the academic reputation of the district. He probably understood that a revision of the curriculum was necessary in order to accomplish this goal, but he was not able to structure the process of curriculum reform in such a way as to gain support for it from teachers, students, or parents.

Nevertheless, Superintendent B desired the notoriety that accompanies school improvement. In addition, his credibility with the board of education in part hinged on his ability to make good his promises: to increase test scores, to improve the county's performance in academic competitions, and to increase the college-going rate.

The superintendent was in quandary: he had set goals for the district that could not be accomplished without the support of teachers, students, and parents; and he lacked that support. To make matters worse, he did not want to allocate resources--either time or money--to the process of curriculum reform. His solution was expedient: (1) order the change to take place, (2) target the curriculum for high-ability students as the one in need of reform, (3) set up two or three meetings of teachers charged to design the new curriculum, and then (4) declare that a new program had been instituted.

Through this chain of events, the program for academically talented middle and secondary school students (the A.T. program) came into being. What characterized it, however, was unclear. Was it a program only for students who were talented? It would seem, according to the hastily written guidelines, that it was. These guidelines set a score for program eligibility: the 85th percentile or above for total basic skills on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS).

Even in the first months of the program, however, actual

practice differed from intended practice. The four principals who supervised the implementation of the program all believed that it would be unfair to use the composite CTBS score only. Therefore, they chose to admit students to the program on the basis of their CTBS subtest scores. Those with 85th percentile scores or above in a particular subject could take advanced courses (called A.T. courses) in that subject.

This modification of the guidelines was minor compared to the modification instituted by the superintendent at the behest of one--perhaps the most powerful--board member. According to this board member, the program's goal was to improve all students' performance; hence, all students should potentially be eligible to participate in the program. This interpretation, while logical on the surface, defied the logic underlying the program's development. It was true that the superintendent claimed and the board believed that the program would improve all students' learning; but, in fact, the program was designed so that it would only work for some students. The program allowed for some acceleration; it offered a more challenging presentation of material; and it was designed to be too difficult for many students.

Considering the board's expectations and his own mixed feelings about the program, the superintendent was unwilling to take a public stand to protect the limited mission of the program. Therefore, he instituted a modification to the program that seemed completely irrational in light of the

program's original premises. He decided that any student whose parents requested it could participate in the program.

This decision had profound consequences for the program. In the eyes of the principals, it further vitiated admission standards. Whereas in the first year of the program they were willing to alter the standards only for those students with high subtest scores, by the second year they were willing to alter the standards for almost any reason including administrative convenience. For the teachers who believed that they had designed a challenging program, the reality was hard to understand. It took the teachers a while to realize why the "academically talented" students in their classes were so slow to learn, so concrete in their approach, and so poorly motivated. Some teachers understood the phenomenon better than others.

Regardless of the degree to which they could explain the problem to themselves, the teachers responded to it in fairly similar ways. First, they altered the cognitive complexity of instruction. Like teachers in many programs, they geared instruction to the average level of the learners they encountered. Second, they grappled with the label. The program was supposed to be different from the regular college-preparatory program. But with the students that they had, how could they make it different? One way was to give more work. Although they covered the same content with their A.T. sections as they did with their college-preparatory sections, the teachers differentiated the assignments they

gave the two groups. The A.T. students were given the same kind of assignments, but they were given about twice as many of them. When college-preparatory classes were assigned one page of practice problems, A.T. classes were assigned two. College-preparatory English classes required one term paper; A.T. classes required two.

This response had some unanticipated and unwelcome consequences: it frustrated the brightest students in the schools, and it made their parents angry. The most vocal parents brought their concerns to the county office staff and eventually to the board.

In the meantime, the board had appointed a new superintendent. Neither he nor his newly constituted staff viewed the A.T. program as one of its primary concerns. Many other tasks were more pressing; but in March of 1988, the board member who had originally promoted the program brought its problems to the attention of the new administration. At this time, I became involved with the program.

Because I was a new member of the county office staff, I had no previous involvement with the program. My ignorance of the program's history enabled other staff members to view me as impartial. For this reason, the new superintendent charged me with the responsibility of evaluating the A.T. program.

Program Evaluation

To determine the needs of the program, I used a

procedure designed by the Appalachia Educational Laboratory. Because of the limited time and resources available to support the program evaluation, I chose to concentrate my work with the teachers who had designed the program and who now taught courses in it. The procedure I used included four activities.

The first activity was a workshop at which a group of teachers--about one-third of the teachers in the program--wrote need statements in accordance with a set of guidelines. These guidelines were developed so that participants could generate a large number of need statements, write the need statements using a consistent format, and edit the need statements for clarity.

The second activity was a survey to which all of the teachers responded. The items on the survey were the need statements generated during the first activity. Each need statement on the survey included three separate parts:

(1) a topic -- the subject of the particular need,

(2) a description of "what is" with respect to the particular topic (that is, the way things are now), and

(3) a comparable description of "what is preferred" with respect to the topic (that is, an alternative to the way things are now).

Teachers rated each need statement on a five-point scale that allowed them to indicate the degree of importance that they ascribed to that need. Each teacher gave high ratings to those need statements with which he or she agreed most strongly.

The third activity involved the analysis of survey results. I used several steps to develop an analysis that would relate directly to program improvement. The steps were:

(1) calculating the means and standard deviations of the ratings for each item,

(2) ranking the items on the basis of their mean ratings and selecting the top 20 items for further analysis,

(3) running a factor analysis on the top 20 items, and

(4) synthesizing the results of the factor analysis by giving names to the top five factors.

The fourth activity was a follow-up session intended to provide teachers with a summary of the purposes, procedures, results, interpretations, and implications of the needs assessment. By the time I conducted this session, however, I was in a different role with respect to the teachers because I had resigned my position in the county.

Survey Results

From the 20 top-ranking need statements, five factors were constructed. These five factors together were able to account for about half of the variance of these 20 statements. The other 50% of the variance was not explained by these factors--a result that shows there was considerable diversity of opinion.

In constructing the factors, I used the following criterion to determine which items to include in each factor: items were judged to contribute significantly to factors if

the factor accounted for at least 20% of the variance of the item ratings. This proportion of the variance is equivalent to a factor loading of .45.

Factors

I identified five factors. These are listed below along the items that constituted each of them.

FACTOR #1: GENERAL PROGRAM ORGANIZATION AND COORDINATION

ITEM 11: Currently some students who do not qualify for admission to the A.T. program are nevertheless placed in A.T. classes to ensure sufficient enrollment. It is recommended that only qualified students be admitted to A.T. classes even if this arrangement reduces enrollment.

ITEM 12: Current policy requires A.T. students to complete more homework than students in other sections. It is recommended that the policy be changed so that A.T. students are not required to complete more homework than other students. Instead, A.T. students should be given assignments that are more conceptually sophisticated than those given to other students.

ITEM 16: At present there is little coordination between the A.T. program at the middle schools and the A.T. program at the high schools. It is recommended that there be increased coordination between the middle and high school A.T. programs. Improved communication between all A.T. staff members is necessary in order for the program to be able to provide a continuous, well-articulated curriculum sequence.

ITEM 43: Currently, all sections of a course use the same textbook. It is recommended that A.T. sections use textbooks that provide a more challenging and more comprehensive presentation of the subject.

ITEM 67: Some A.T. classes require students to participate in out-of-school activities, such as science fairs and essay contests, that are not directly related to the curriculum. It is recommended that participation in such activities be optional.

ITEM 72: Too many students are currently scheduled into each A.T. class. It is recommended that class size for A.T. sections be reduced.

ITEM 74: At present students who are not doing well in A.T. classes are permitted to remain in these classes. It is recommended that students who are not doing well be removed from A.T. classes.

FACTOR #2: COURSE REQUIREMENTS

ITEM 55: Teachers in the A.T. program may not be aware of the requirements in other A.T. classes. It is recommended that A.T. teachers develop better means of communicating with one another.

ITEM 58: Currently, the same textbooks are used in all sections of a course. It is recommended that the textbooks selected for A.T. sections correspond to the scope and content of the material presented in these sections.

FACTOR #3: STUDENT SELECTION PROCEDURES

ITEM 1: At present any student who wants to get into the A.T. program is able to do so. It is recommended that admission to the A.T. program be limited to students whose achievement is in the top 15%.

FACTOR #4: CURRICULUM

ITEM 7: The current emphasis in A.T. classes is on increased amounts of homework. It is recommended that the emphasis in A.T. classes be on higher-order thinking skills rather than on large quantities of "busy work."

FACTOR #5: STANDARDS FOR STUDENT RETENTION

ITEM 49: Currently, there are no standards that students must meet in order to remain in the A.T. program. It is recommended that each student be required to maintain a certain grade point average in order to stay in the A.T. program.

Conclusions

Although there was considerable diversity of opinion regarding the needs of the A.T. program, there was also some degree of consensus. In general, the teachers seemed to agree that five parts of the program were troublesome: (1) organization and coordination, (2) course requirements, (3) student selection procedures, (4) curriculum, and (5)

standards for student retention.

In thinking about the first, and most significant, of the factors, however, I came to the conclusion that the program was hampered by more fundamental problems than I had originally suspected. This perception was confirmed by my investigation into the history of the program. Rather than being based on shared values, the program seemed to be based on a network of conflicting values. Historically, these conflicts were embedded in the negotiations between Superintendent B and the board. Presently, though unexamined, they are the reason for the county office staff's inability to take any action with respect to the program: either to restore the program's original premises or alter its premises. These value conflicts also may explain teachers', parents', and students' dissatisfaction with the program.

The value conflicts center around two issues: (1) whether the school should identify students on the basis of their individual characteristics and (2) whether programs for the academically talented should involve a more challenging academic content than other college preparatory programs. Opinions on both issues vary considerably, not so much as a result of individuals' roles within the school district hierarchy (e.g., administrator, teacher, parent). but more as a result of individuals' fundamental values and educational orientations.

The first issue describes the continuum between two

extreme views: the view that all students are equal and, therefore, should receive the same education and the opposing view that each student is unique and should receive educational experiences in keeping with his or her characteristics. In general, the more conservative school personnel subscribe to the former view whereas the more liberal personnel subscribe to the latter. General and special educators tend also to differ in their orientation with regard to this issue. Special educators tend to credit the importance of individual differences, and general educators tend to emphasize the value of uniformity.

The second issue relates to the first but is narrower in scope. Its context is the premise that programs for academically talented student ought to exist. Within this context, individuals have a variety of opinions about the preferred nature of such programs. Some personnel believe that such programs should present challenging academic content, others that they should require more work but not necessarily more challenging work. Still others believe that programs for academically talented students should present affective content (e.g., counseling) to counteract the negative effects of such students' internalized competitiveness and perfectionism.

As with the first issue, the variability in the opinions of teachers and administrators with regard to the second issue seems to reflect their differing educational and political orientations. In general, conservatives and

general educators endorse the view that programs for academically talented students ought to be more rigorous. Liberals and special educators tend to believe that such programs ought to provide primarily for the affective needs of academically talented students.

This analysis of value orientations suggests a curious dilemma. Those district personnel who support programs for the academically talented do not favor academic programs. Those that do not support such programs in principle do, nevertheless, believe that, when such programs exist, they should be academic. These findings seem to explain why Superintendent B found it so difficult to involve personnel in the process of program design. It also explains why, once instituted, the program deteriorated in the ways that it did. Finally, it suggests the intractable character of the problems that have confounded efforts to improve the program.

Grassroots Development: Applying ERIC Resources in a Small, Rural School District

by

Craig B. Howley, Associate Director
ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools

Pamelia Coe, Research & Development Specialist
Appalachia Educational Laboratory

Robert Nash, Assistant Superintendent
Hart County (KY) Schools

Wandel Strange, Superintendent
Hart County Schools

September 1, 1988

RC 017290

Grassroots Development: Applying ERIC Resources in a Small, Rural School District

This article introduces our work on a new tool to help those interested in making their schools better by improving the level of parental involvement. We offer it as an example of how educators and community members, working together, can plan and carry out a systematic school improvement project. We hope that it will be read not only by educators, but by other citizens as well, particularly by concerned parents. We highlight an important tool used in our work, the federally-funded Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), a computer-searchable database of writings on education.

The School Effectiveness Literature

Our discussion begins by placing the issue of parental involvement in the context of what has become known as the "school effectiveness literature." In general, we know that:

- providing more books, more computers, and better facilities does not generally cause students in a school to learn more;
- what does make a difference is how those responsible for schooling use the resources at hand -- whatever they are;
- some schools with lots of resources do worse than we might expect, and some schools with meager resources do better than we might expect;
- we have a lot of ideas -- based on a lot of research -- about how educators and citizens might act to make things better; and
- in particular, wide consensus exists on the benefits of involving parents in the education of their children.

The Immediate Context

If we are interested in making things better, however, we need a way to measure the changes that occur, for example, in the level of parental involvement. Increasing the level of parental involvement is the goal of a project with which we are active in a small, rural school district (Hart County, Kentucky), where two of us work as administrators. The issue of parental involvement in Hart County, we should tell you, was selected for the school improvement project by a group of educators and citizens who studied the needs of the schools there over a three-month period early in 1988. The Appalachia Educational Laboratory (AEL), where the other two coauthors work, provided technical assistance to the project. The group selected this issue after considering several other issues that research conducted by the project suggested were good choices, too. The other choices included expecting the best from all students and improving the way in which classtime was used.

The consensus of the group -- which was balanced for gender, race, and geographic location within the district -- was strong, however. Everyone involved agreed that they would be doing something important if they could improve the level of parental involvement in a variety of different activities related to schooling.

At one point in our discussions, the superintendent, who attended all the meetings as an ex officio member of the group, asked a pointed question, which helped stimulate the work reported below. He wanted to know how we as a group would know if we had actually increased the level of involvement exhibited by parents in Hart County. The consultants

assured him it would be done with what is known in education as a "valid and reliable" instr nt.

"Valid and reliable" means that an instrument really measures what it says it does (it's valid), and that if you use it twice with the same people in the same circumstances, you will very likely get the same results (it's reliable). Both characteristics are important. For example, it would not be valid to measure length with a measuring cup, and it would not be reliable to measure length with rulers that had inches of different size. Those are the pitfalls that a good instrument avoids.

Reliability and validity can be described in terms of a number, usually a "correlation coefficient." Correlation coefficients show the degree to which one measure changes when another one does. In the case of reliability and validity coefficients typically vary from 0 (no validity or reliability) to 1.00 (perfect validity or reliability). A coefficient of .80 is usually considered a good reliability for an instrument that tries to measure changes in a whole group of people. A coefficient of .90 is considered an adequate reliability for an instrument that tries to measure changes in an individual person.

However, it turns out that the consultants didn't know what they were saying. There were no such instruments available to measure changes in the level of parental involvement.

The Larger Context

We had thought that, since there was widespread agreement on the importance of parental involvement in the literature of school effectiveness, someone would surely have developed a "valid and reliable"

way to measure changes in the level of parental involvement. After all, we knew that there was more to parental involvement than just counting noses at PTA meetings. Some researcher, someplace, must have solved this problem, we thought. Boy, were we wrong. We hadn't intended to reinvent the wheel, of course, and we were surprised to find this particular wheel hadn't been invented yet.

Where We Started: ERIC

How did we find out we were wrong? We checked the ERIC database. The ERIC database is an archive of virtually all journal articles, unpublished papers, and small-circulation reports produced on education in the last 25 years. The database is not really very hard to use, and it can be searched electronically. Consulting ERIC is good insurance against reinventing the wheel, and, as we discovered it's also a good resource if you have to invent a wheel.

In fact, libraries and school districts are beginning to acquire microcomputers hooked up to compact discs (CD-ROM) that contain the complete ERIC indexes, including summaries of all the articles and documents (over 700,000 of them). In the future, more and more local school districts will probably be installing CD-ROM players for this purpose. The cost is quite reasonable when you consider that the ERIC database is an excellent professional library.

In any case, our search of the ERIC database turned up just four instruments directed at measuring parental involvement. None was designed to measure changes in the level of parental involvement. Three of them had been designed to get answers about specific activities conducted by

local projects scattered around the country. None of the three had any reliability or validity figures.

The fourth instrument was a 200-question survey of parents' attitudes on most of the issues that the school effectiveness literature had identified as important, the Parent Attitudes Toward School Effectiveness questionnaire, designed by Robert Gable and colleagues at the University of Connecticut. Dr. Gable generously allowed us to adapt items from his scale for our purposes. It did have some reliability figures.

What did this mean to us? It meant we would have to develop our own instrument, but it also meant we had a place to start.

First, we seemed to have found a source of some reliable items, because some of the items on the 200-item survey had to do with parent involvement. Since they had worked before, they would probably work again. We also knew that we would have to write items of our own, since the 14 items that dealt with parental involvement on the 200-item survey did not cover the full range of activities that parents and educators might be involved in together.

Second, we knew that we would not be able to establish validity as a number (that is, as a correlation coefficient). Why? Numerical validity is based on correlating two different instruments, one of which is accepted by the field as valid. We didn't even have one valid instrument yet! We were breaking new ground.

Fortunately, in such a circumstance, there is a concept of validity that can apply to newly developed instruments: "content" or "face" validity. Establishing this type of validity depends on making a judgment that the instrument seems to touch on most of the attributes of

the thing you want to measure. If we relied on a good explanation of the nature of parental involvement in helping us write additional items, then we could establish content validity. In fact, quite a bit has been written about the nature of parental involvement, as we indicated above.

We chose to base our items on the work of Joyce Epstein, who has been writing for a while about four or five different sorts of activities that make up the idea of parental involvement. Hence, we based the kind of parental involvement measured by our instrument on the following five sorts of activities discussed by Epstein:

1. meeting the basic needs of children,
2. communicating with teachers and administrators,
3. involvement of parents in activities at school,
4. involvement of parents in activities at home, and
5. involvement of parents in making decisions about certain kinds of educational policy.

These characteristics are very nicely summarized several articles by Epstein that are archived in the ERIC database.[1]

Using Epstein's scheme, we divided the 14 relevant items from Dr. Gable's among these five sorts of activity and drafted 16 additional items, so that each sort of activity discussed by Epstein was represented by about six questions. The goal here was not to develop a way to measure the different sorts of activity separately, which would require a lot more items, a lot more time, and a lot more resources than we had. The goal

[1]For example, "Parental Involvement: What Research Says to Administrators," published in Education and Urban Society, Vol. 19, No 2, pp. 119-136, in February 1987.

was just to provide enough variety to represent the complete idea of "parental involvement" as described by Epstein in several articles.

The thirty draft items, together with the instructions and two sample layouts, were circulated to seven staff members at AEL and to a temporary committee of six citizens and educators in Hart County. The instrument was revised according to the recommendations made by these 13 reviewers.

Description of the Instrument

Our final version of the instrument, then, had 30 items. Each item consisted of a statement about some kind of parent involvement. Some statements were phrased positively, some negatively, a technique we used to help encourage those who responded to pay particular attention to each item. The instructions were simple and clear. We asked parents to indicate, on a five-point scale, how much they agreed or disagreed with the statements and send the completed form back to school with their children. A blank line at the top of the page was left for parents to indicate the name of the school their children attended. The questions appeared on two sides of a single page, and the instrument was attractively produced using desktop publishing.

When we scored the returns, we reversed the negatively-worded items and calculated total scores. Thus, total scores could vary from a low of 30 to a high of 150.

If our valid instrument proved to be reliable, we intended to compare the average score from this administration to the average score after our project had carried out some activities intended to stimulate interest in and action toward increasing the level of parental involvement. If the

average score after the project activities were significantly[2] higher than before, we would be able to say that we had achieved the goal of increasing the level of parental involvement.

Hart County principals mailed the instrument to the parents of every fourth student on their rosters. Their mailings included a cover letter from them, which asked the parents to return the form to the school in two weeks. About 200 returns were forwarded to AEL for analysis right on schedule from Hart County at the end of May, a return rate of about 35%. That kind of return rate is typical for such a procedure, but we would, of course, have preferred a higher return rate.

Results of the First Administration

Our goal was to measure changes in the level of parental involvement in Hart County as a whole. With the results in hand, we had data that could help us begin to establish the reliability of our instrument.

One kind of reliability coefficient used in work of this kind is called "Chronbach's alpha," after its developer, Lee Chronbach. The good thing about this coefficient is that it can be calculated from a single administration of an instrument of this type.

Before we calculated the reliability of the entire instrument, however, we wanted to make sure that each item was actually distinguishing between parents with high total scores and parents with low total scores: a basic principle in tests and measurements. It's called "item

---

[2]"Significantly," as used here, is a statistical idea. It refers to the degree to which chance can be ruled out as a cause of observed differences. In this case, we've decided that we'll accept our differences as significant if the odds that they were produced by chance are less than 1 in 20.

discrimination." Our item discrimination was acceptable[3], though we'll probably try to improve it if the instrument is used in another project, and we have drafted revised items for that purpose.

When we calculated Chronbach's alpha, we were pleased to discover that our instrument demonstrated a high reliability, .97. Hence, we intend to use it again in an attempt to discover if our activities do increase the level of parental involvement in Hart County during the coming school year.

Our final test of the instrument's validity and reliability was a factor analysis to see if all the items really seemed to measure the same thing. After all, we developed our items to cover a variety of activities that we thought represented the idea of "parental involvement." Maybe they didn't really hang together very well. Factor analysis can show how a series of items forms subgroups. The theme of a subgroup is called a "factor." Our analysis showed that all of our items formed a single subgroup. That is, it showed that they "hung together" and reflected a single factor. What might that factor be called? Parental involvement.

So What?

This seems like an awful lot of work. It wasn't. It was extra work, however, because we hadn't thought it would be necessary. Altogether we spent perhaps 100 person-hours developing the instrument. In fact, each

---

[3]Item discrimination can vary between -1.00 (meaning the item discriminates perfectly, but in the wrong direction) and +1.00 (meaning the item discriminates perfectly and in the right direction). A value of +.20 is generally accepted as the minimum for a functional item. The thirty items on our instrument all had an index of discrimination above +.22. We felt justified in retaining all items in calculating our reliability statistic.

of us contributed substantially less time than many individual teachers spend interacting with parents over the course of several months.

But it was a team effort, and it was interesting work. The ERIC database yielded up enough information to point us in the right direction and even did half of our work on item development. Everyone pitched in to help work up new items. AEL staff cooperated in designing the statistical analysis. With microcomputers everywhere and good statistics programs available, number-crunching is a lot easier than it used to be.

We want to stress again the important role that the resources of the ERIC database played in the project. Half of our items came from a resource in the database, and we used them because they had been proven to be useful. In addition, our idea of what constitutes parental involvement was accessible in the ERIC database. We are confident the instrument will be useful in Hart County. We hope we've also developed something that other educators may be able to build on.

What Next?

Although we have enough evidence to make the claim that our instrument is valid and reliable, and that it does indeed measure a single thing, there are still a lot of unanswered questions. Since no one seems to have developed such an instrument in the past, we cannot be very sure of the nature of our construct ("parental involvement").

In particular, we don't know if the construct reflected in this instrument is actually capable of much change. We get the impression from the school effectiveness literature and from conversations with educators that it is, but we can't be sure. If our second use of the instrument

(after we carry out our projects) doesn't show a significant increase in the level of parent involvement, we cannot immediately assume there is a problem with the activities. It is possible that the instrument measures a construct that isn't easily changed. We have to start someplace, however. So we'll take the chance.

Other questions concern alternatives that we haven't investigated. For example, would it be useful to develop a 10-item short form? (It might increase return rates or lend itself to a telephone administration.) Should we use the instrument to assess the involvement of individual parents? (The reliability does seem to be high enough.) Should we develop separate forms for elementary and secondary levels? (Probably, because the nature of parental involvement is quite different in high schools and elementary schools.)

We hope to get the chance to confront these questions in our future work. We intend to submit a technical report of our work to the ERIC Clearinghouse on Tests and Measurement. If they select the document to include in the ERIC database, it will be accessible to other educators in the near future.

Using Educational Resources in Rural Schools

Is it reasonable to expect harried rural educators and community members to engage in this sort of work? We think it is, and we've seen examples--the work reported here is just one of many.

Whether or not it can happen in your school district depends in part on the organizational climate there. Do people think it is important for teachers and administrators to keep growing professionally? Are teachers

and administrators looking for new projects that increase their sense of efficacy? Is the organization open enough to allow everyone to appreciate one another's talents and the talents of people in the local community? If so, you're ready to do this sort of work, and maybe you're already doing something like it.

But it also depends on the accessibility of educational resources. The ERIC database contains a host of resources for almost every conceivable activity and idea in education. Of course, you need to exercise your own judgment about what to use, based on your own conclusions about education. For example, we might have approached this project differently, but the character of Hart County, the issues that were considered important there, and the views of the consultants led us to go the way we did. A different place, a different set of needs, and a different array of talents would certainly have produced something that looked quite different.

There is, however, enough in the ERIC database to accommodate those differences very well. In the future, the ERIC database will become more familiar and more accessible to local educators and to parents and community members as well.

The authors would like to thank Pat Cahape Merrill Meehan, Jack Sanders, and Beth Sattes for their assistance. Todd Strohmenger, Director of AEL's Rural, Small Schools Program and of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, has been actively involved in all aspects of this work. We greatly appreciate his support and encouragement.

AEL's Level of Parent Involvement Questionnaire*

Directions to parents: This questionnaire will give your school district information about how you as a parent feel about the school your child attends and about your role in the school.

If you have children at two schools, you may get two questionnaires. Please write the name of the school to which this information applies on the line below:

_____

For each question, please decide if you agree or disagree that the statement applies to your child's school. Then circle the number that comes closest to expressing your opinion:

1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Not Sure
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

1.	Teachers in this school use either phone calls, newsletters, regular notes, or parent conferences in addition to report cards to communicate my child's progress to me.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Parents learn from the teachers specific ways to help their children with their homework.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	The school's teachers and principals are open to parents' suggestions and involvement.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Someone from my family has volunteered time or money to the school during the last twelve months..	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Teachers do not contact parents regularly to discuss student progress.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	The school staff do not send parents booklets about nutrition, health care, or raising children.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Most of the teachers communicate frequently with parents.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I feel welcome when I visit my child's school.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I have visited my child's school at least twice in the past year.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	There is an active parent/school group.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	The school does not offer to parents classes about child growth and development.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Teachers seek ideas and suggestions from parents.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	The teachers or principal inform parents about what students need in order to study effectively at home.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I believe that my child's teachers care about what my child's home life is like.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	In general, the staff is frank and open with parents and students.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	The school staff help parents to be aware of family services that are available from other agencies (for example, Health Department, ASCS, or the Department of Human Services).	1	2	3	4	5
17.	It is difficult for parents to contribute to decisions made at this school.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Parents are aware that teachers are willing to help their children with specific needs or concerns.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	It is easy to make appointments to meet with teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Teachers do not encourage parents to help their children make the most of their years in school.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Very few parents visit the school.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	If my child got into trouble at school, I think that the school staff would do the right thing in dealing with the problem	1	2	3	4	5
23.	The principal leads frequent discussions about instruction and achievement with parents.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Parents are not encouraged by the school staff to read to their children at home, or to show an interest in their children's reading.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	It is difficult to make appointments with the principal to discuss instructional issues.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Parents who need help in feeding and clothing their children can get help or useful information from the school.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	The principal brings instructional issues (such as improving teaching) to parents for discussion.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	I expect my child to earn grades of C or better, and I make sure my child knows that is what I expect.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	The principal communicates the mission of the school to parents.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Teachers send classwork home for me to look at.	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION WITH THIS SURVEY.

* Some items adapted from the **Parent Attitudes Toward School Effectiveness Questionnaire**, by Robert Gable, Christine Murphy, Christopher Hall, and Ann Clark (1986). ERIC DocumentReproduction Service No. ED 277 733. Used by permission.

Description of the "PATSE"

Gable, R., Murphy, C., and Hall, C. (1986, April). The Development of the Pilot Form of the Parent Attitudes toward School Effectiveness (PATSE) Questionnaire. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Council on Measurement in Education, San Francisco, CA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 277 733)

The development of the Parent Attitudes toward School Effectiveness (PATSE) questionnaire was conducted in two phases. The pilot test form contained 47 items reflecting parents' attitudes toward 6 categories: (1) school and community relationships; (2) clear school mission; (3) high expectations; (4) safe and orderly environment; (5) instructional leadership; and (6) frequent monitoring of student progress. The measure was constructed in a five-point Likert rating scale format, including both negatively and positively worded statements. The categories and items were generated from literature reviews on school effectiveness, teacher questionnaires used in the Connecticut Secondary School Effectiveness Project, and an expert panel. The measure was completed by about 30 percent of parents receiving a mail survey; item analyses and reliability data were generated from the 625 respondents. Results supported use of the PATSE scales. A few items were able to be deleted, and high intercorrelations among scales were noted. Family and school variables were briefly examined. The second phase of test construction examined construct validity using principal component analysis and oblique rotation. Ten resulting components accounted for 55 percent of total variance. Sample score reports include the 47 items. An eight-page bibliography concludes the document. (GDC)

Hart County Parent Involvement Results, By School, June 88

This table contains a summary of data gathered in a random-sample survey of parents of Hart County (KY) students. Parents of every fourth student on school rosters were surveyed. The survey yielded 203 usable returns, with a response rate of 34%.

The questionnaire contained 30 Likert-type item about the involvement of parents in the education of their own children. Questions cover a wide range of parental involvement.

Joyce Epstein (1987) has written about five types of parental involvement with schools: communications, involvement centered at the home, involvement centered at school, involvement in meeting basic needs of children, and involvement in making decisions about how schools will operate. The survey items cover this range of activity, but the questionnaire does not purport to measure different sorts of parental involvement.

The data presented below are:

1. Discriminative index: extent to which the particular item distinguishes between parents whose total scores ranked in the top quartile of total score and those whose scores ranked in the bottom quartile of total score. All 30 items had a positive index of discrimination (range: +.23 - +.81).

2. Source: where the item came from. In general, even numbered items were developed by Hart County educators and citizens and AEL staff; most odd numbered items were adapted from items developed by Robert Gable and colleagues at the University of Connecticut for the "Parent Attitudes Toward School Effectiveness (PATSE) Questionnaire."

3. Epstein Category: the category (Epstein, 1987) to which the item was judged to belong.

4. Descriptive statistics: Means and standard deviations for the entire sample (n =203) and for each school. Subsample size and sample proportion are also reported. **Please note that negatively worded items (i.e., items 5, 6, 8, 10, 13, 17, 20, 21, 24, and 25) were reversed prior to scoring. Thus, to interpret the means correctly, you must mentally rephrase the item to read positively.**

5. Item-ranking code: the symbols "<" (less than) and ">" (greater than) identify, respectively, those items that were ranked among the lowest (<) or highest (>) seven items for the entire sample or for each school subsample.

****

Item 1 Discriminative index = +.44
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Communications

Teachers in this school use either phone calls, newsletters, regular notes or parent conferences in addition to report cards to communicate my child's progress to me.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
> Entire sample	3.985	0.987	203	100.0
> Bonnieville	4.268	0.807	41	20.2
> Cub Run	4.238	0.768	21	10.3
Hart County High	3.065	1.340	31	15.3
> LeGrande	4.190	0.512	21	10.3
> Memorial	4.024	0.950	42	20.7
> Munfordville	4.106	0.814	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 2 Discriminative index = +.81
Source: Hart County/AEL Epstein Category: Home

Parents learn from the teachers specific ways to help their children with their homework.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
< Entire sample	3.148	1.164	203	100.0
< Bonnieville	2.976	1.060	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.619	1.024	21	10.3
< Hart County High	2.484	1.092	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.714	1.007	21	10.3
< Memorial	3.143	1.160	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.277	1.228	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 3 Discriminative index = +.44
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Decisionmaking

The school's teachers and principals are open to parents' suggestions and involvement.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
> Entire sample	3.764	0.946	203	100.0
> Bonnieville	3.780	1.129	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.667	1.017	21	10.3
> Hart County High	3.548	0.888	31	15.3
> LeGrande	4.000	0.775	21	10.3
> Memorial	3.833	0.824	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.766	0.960	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 4 Discriminative index = +.31
Source: Hart County/AEL Epstein Category: School

I know parents who have volunteered their time for activities in the schools.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
> Entire sample	3.995	0.755	203	100.0
> Bonnieville	4.146	0.691	41	20.2
> Cub Run	4.143	0.573	21	10.3
> Hart County High	3.677	1.045	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.952	0.740	21	10.3
> Memorial	3.881	0.739	42	20.7
> Munfordville	4.128	0.612	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 5 Discriminative index = + .63
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Communications

Teachers do not contact parents regularly to discuss student progress.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.241	1.257	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.341	1.257	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.571	0.978	21	10.3
< Hart County High	2.452	1.207	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.571	1.248	21	10.3
< Memorial	3.095	1.265	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.511	1.214	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 6 Discriminative index = +.23
Source: Hart County/AEL Epstein Category: Basic Needs

The school staff do not send parents booklets or pamphlets on school information, discipline, nutrition, or health care.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.729	1.169	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.512	1.186	41	20.2
> Cub Run	3.905	1.091	21	10.3
Hart County High	3.355	1.330	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.952	1.117	21	10.3
Memorial	3.762	1.122	42	20.7
> Munfordville	3.957	1.103	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 7 Discriminative index = +.73
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Communications

Most of the teachers communicate frequently with parents.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.271	1.152	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.341	1.109	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.571	0.926	21	10.3
Hart County High	2.226	0.990	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.714	1.007	21	10.3
Memorial	3.238	1.144	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.596	1.077	47	23.2

item ranking codes: [item 7 not among seven highest or lowest at any school]

****

Item 8 Discriminative index = +.35
Source: Hart County/AEL Epstein Category: Home

Parents are not encouraged to visit their children's classrooms or schools.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
> Entire sample	3.749	1.104	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.585	1.264	41	20.2
> Cub Run	4.048	0.865	21	10.3
Hart County High	3.226	1.146	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.952	0.865	21	10.3
> Memorial	3.905	1.055	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.372	1.076	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 9 Discriminative index = +.65
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: School

There is an active parent/school group.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.286	1.013	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.195	1.030	41	20.2
> Cub Run	3.857	0.359	21	10.3
Hart County High	2.677	1.077	31	15.3
< LeGrande	3.476	0.928	21	10.3
Memorial	3.381	1.035	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.340	1.006	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 10 Discriminative index = +.58
Source: Hart County/PEL Epstein Category: Basic Needs

The school does not offer to parents classes about child growth and development.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
< Entire sample	2.704	0.986	203	100.0
< Bonnieville	2.659	1.087	41	20.2
< Cub Run	2.667	0.658	21	10.3
< Hart County High	2.548	1.179	31	15.3
< LeGrande	3.190	0.981	21	10.3
< Memorial	2.929	0.947	42	20.7
< Munfordville	2.447	0.829	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 11 Discriminative index = +.79
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Decisionmaking

Teachers seek ideas and suggestions from parents.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
< Entire sample	3.113	1.049	203	100.0
< Bonnieville	3.049	1.048	41	20.2
< Cub Run	3.238	0.889	21	10.3
Hart County High	2.677	1.077	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.524	0.873	21	10.3
< Memorial	3.167	1.080	42	20.7
< Munfordville	3.170	1.090	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 12 Discriminative index = +.73
Source: Hart County/AFL Epstein Category: Home

The teachers or principal inform parents about what students need in order to study effectively at home.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
< Entire sample	3.177	1.177	203	100.0
< Bonnieville	3.146	1.131	41	20.2
< Cub Run	3.429	0.978	21	10.3
< Hart County High	2.516	1.122	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.762	0.889	21	10.3
Memorial	3.357	1.165	42	20.7
< Munfordville	3.106	1.289	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 13 Discriminative index = +.23
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Communications

I know very little about the policies, academic programs, and activities of the school.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.438	1.104	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.439	1.050	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.619	0.740	21	10.3
Hart County High	2.839	1.036	31	15.3
< LeGrande	2.667	1.111	21	10.3
Memorial	3.476	1.110	42	20.7
> Munfordville	4.064	0.942	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 14 Discriminative index = +.60
Source: Hart County/AEI Epstein Category: Basic Needs

I believe that my child's teachers care about what my child's home life is like.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.724	1.026	203	100.0
> Bonnieville	3.805	1.054	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.762	0.995	21	10.3
Hart County High	3.000	1.183	31	15.3
> LeGrande	4.048	0.384	21	10.3
Memorial	3.810	0.994	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.894	0.961	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 15 Discriminative index = +.48
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Communications

In general, the staff is frank and open with parents and students.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.695	0.898	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.707	0.929	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.714	0.784	21	10.3
> Hart County High	3.419	1.057	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.810	0.602	21	10.3
Memorial	3.595	0.939	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.894	0.866	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 16 Discriminative index = +.58
Source: Hart County/AEL Epstein Category: Basic Needs

The school staff help parents to be aware of family services that are available from other agencies (for example, Health Department, ASCS, or the Department of Human Services).

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.394	0.869	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.171	0.919	41	20.2
< Cub Run	3.429	0.811	21	10.3
Hart County High	3.194	0.910	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.667	0.856	21	10.3
Memorial	3.524	0.804	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.468	0.856	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 17 Discriminative index = +.75
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Decisionmaking

It is difficult for parents to contribute to decisions made at this school.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.271	1.010	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.293	1.031	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.619	0.805	21	10.3
Hart County High	3.065	1.093	31	15.3
< LeGrande	3.381	0.865	21	10.3
< Memorial	3.119	0.889	42	20.7
< Munfordville	3.319	1.163	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
= this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 18 Discriminative index = +.58
Source: Hart County/AEL Epstein Category: School

Parents are aware that teachers are willing to help their children with specific needs or concerns.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.655	0.938	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.537	0.951	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.524	1.030	21	10.3
> Hart County High	3.419	1.057	31	15.3
> LeGrande	4.000	0.632	21	10.3
Memorial	3.643	0.932	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.830	0.892	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 19 Discriminative index = +.40
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Communications

It is easy to make appointments to meet with teachers.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
> Entire sample	3.862	0.845	203	100.0
> Bonnieville	4.073	0.818	41	20.2
> Cub Run	4.048	0.805	21	10.3
> Hart County High	3.419	0.958	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.857	0.478	21	10.3
Memorial	3.762	0.821	42	20.7
> Munfordville	3.979	0.872	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 20 Discriminative index = +.56
Source: Hart County/AEL Epstein Category: Home

Teachers do not encourage parents to help their children make the most of their years in school.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.729	1.148	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.561	1.285	41	20.2
> Cub Run	3.857	0.910	21	10.3
Hart County High	3.290	1.270	31	15.3
> LeGrande	4.095	0.889	21	10.3
> Memorial	3.833	1.102	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.851	1.122	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 21 Discriminative index = +.77
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: School

Very few parents visit the school.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
< Entire sample	3.103	0.957	203	100.0
< Bonnieville	2.951	1.117	41	20.2
< Cub Run	3.190	0.814	21	10.3
< Hart County High	2.581	0.958	31	15.3
< LeGrande	3.333	0.796	21	10.3
Memorial	3.238	0.821	42	20.7
< Munfordville	3.319	0.935	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 22 Discriminative index = +.31
Source: Hart County/AEL Epstein Category: Home

I know parents who have supported the teachers concerning the school behavior of their children.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.665	0.848	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.683	0.960	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.810	0.512	21	10.3
> Hart County High	3.484	0.926	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.667	0.796	21	10.3
Memorial	3.643	1.008	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.723	0.682	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 23 Discriminative index = +.71
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Decisionmaking

The principal leads frequent discussions about instruction and achievement with parents.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
< Entire sample	2.872	1.059	203	100.0
< Bonnieville	2.780	1.151	41	20.2
< Cub Run	2.952	1.024	21	10.3
Hart County High	2.613	0.882	31	15.3
< LeGrande	3.381	1.024	21	10.3
< Memorial	3.095	1.078	42	20.7
< Munfordville	2.660	1.027	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 24 Discriminative index = +.44
Source: Hart County/AEL Epstein Category: School

Parents are not encouraged by the school staff to read to their children at home, or to show an interest in their children's reading.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
> Entire sample	3.778	1.097	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.610	1.222	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.762	1.044	21	10.3
Hart County High	3.161	1.214	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.905	1.091	21	10.3
> Memorial	4.143	0.843	42	20.7
> Munfordville	3.957	0.977	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 25 Discriminative index = +.56
Source: FATSE Epstein Category: Decisionmaking

It is difficult to make appointments with the principal to discuss instructional issues.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.685	0.995	203	100.0
> Bonnieville	3.732	1.049	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.619	1.117	21	10.3
> Hart County High	3.419	1.025	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.905	1.044	21	10.3
Memorial	3.643	0.932	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.787	0.907	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 26 Discriminative index = +.60
Source: Hart County/AEL Epstein Category: Basic Needs

Parents who need help in feeding and clothing their children can get help or useful information from the school.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.527	0.773	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.293	0.814	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.667	0.658	21	10.3
> Hart County High	3.516	0.724	31	15.3
LeGrande	3.667	0.796	21	10.3
Memorial	3.429	0.770	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.702	0.778	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 27 Discriminative index = +.71
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Decisionmaking

The principal brings instructional issues (such as improving teaching) to parents for discussion.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
< Entire sample	2.783	0.869	203	100.0
< Bonnieville	2.561	0.950	41	20.2
< Cub Run	2.714	0.845	21	10.3
< Hart County High	2.484	0.851	31	15.3
< LeGrande	3.143	0.727	21	10.3
< Memorial	3.024	0.869	42	20.7
< Munfordville	2.830	0.789	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 28 Discriminative index = +.38
Source: Hart County/AEL Epstein Category: Home

Parents show that they have high expectations for their children.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.700	0.852	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.707	0.873	41	20.2
Cub Run	3.571	0.811	21	10.3
> Hart County High	3.548	0.850	31	15.3
> LeGrande	4.000	0.775	21	10.3
> Memorial	3.857	0.843	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.574	0.878	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 29 Discriminative index = +.67
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Communications

The principal communicates the mission of the school to parents.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	3.463	0.991	203	100.0
Bonnieville	3.341	1.175	41	20.2
< Cub Run	3.333	1.017	21	10.3
Hart County High	3.032	1.110	31	15.3
> LeGrande	4.048	0.498	21	10.3
Memorial	3.595	0.767	42	20.7
Munfordville	3.532	0.952	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

****

Item 30 Discriminative index = +.40
Source: PATSE Epstein Category: Home

Teachers send classwork home for me to look at.

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
> Entire sample	3.911	1.054	203	100.0
> Bonnieville	4.049	0.999	41	20.2
> Cub Run	4.048	0.590	21	10.3
Hart County High	2.710	1.321	31	15.3
> LeGrande	4.333	0.577	21	10.3
> Memorial	4.000	0.911	42	20.7
> Munfordville	4.255	0.793	47	23.2

item ranking codes:
> = this item among highest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated
< = this item among lowest-ranked seven items in sample at school indicated

Total Score

	Mean	S.D.	N	Pct.
Entire sample	104.419	17.252	203	100.0
Bonnieville	103.293	15.667	41	20.2
Cub Run	108.190	12.307	21	10.3
Hart County High	90.645	19.333	31	15.3
LeGrande	111.905	13.011	21	10.3
Memorial	106.143	14.229	42	20.7
Munfordville	107.915	18.803	47	23.2

References

Gable, R., Murphy, C., & Hall., C. (1986). The development of the pilot form of the "Parent Attitudes Toward School Effectiveness (PATSE) Questionnaire". Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council on Measurement in Education, San Francisco, CA.

Epstein, J. (1987). What principals should know about parent involvement. Principal, 66(3), 6-9.

National Rural and Small Schools Consortium, Third Annual Conference
Ft. Lauderdale, FL
March 9, 1989

"A Reliable Instrument to Measure Parent Involvement in Rural Schools"

Presenter: Craig Howley
ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools
Appalachia Educational Laboratory

Presentation Outline

I. Introductions

II. Nature of AEL Rural, Small Schools project
  A. Community Partnership for School Improvement model
    1. sites
    2. structure (transparency #1)
    3. function (transparency #2)
  B. Nature of projects selected
    1. KY, WV (parent involvement; school climate)
    2. TN, VA (parent involvement; middle school feasibility study)

III. Kentucky demonstration
  A. Hart County (transparency #3)
    1. school climate
    2. curriculum (vocational, accelerated program)
    3. community (ethnographic study)
  B. Consensus on parent involvement
    1. study group's rankings
    2. Steering Committee's rankings
  C. Superintendent's concern for evaluation
  D. Nature of improvement plan
    1. development of parent involvement instrument
    2. conference on parent involvement
    3. school projects (6 funded)
    4. teacher projects (20 funded)

IV. Initial research for parent involvement instrument (handout #1)
  A. ERIC search (4 instruments; 3 migrant; 1 general)
    1. search strategy
      (parent-participation or parent-school-relationship) and (dtn=160)

2. Robert Gable's PATSE
    a. many scales, including parent involvement
    b. item and scale reliability statistics
    c. 14 items specific to parental involvement

V. Theoretical basis for instrument development **(handout #2: Epstein, 1987)**
  A. Joyce Epstein's work at Hopkins
    1. five categories from Epstein (1987) **(transparency #4)**
        a. basic needs
        b. communications
        c. school
        d. home
        e. decisionmaking
    2. application of Epstein's notion
        a. coverage of general construct of parental involvement
        b. no attempt to measure 5 independent subconstructs
  B. Development of new items
    1. categorization of 14 items (judgmental)
    2. development and categorization of 16 additional items
    3. pilot test: 7 AEL staff members, 6 Hart County citizens
    4. revisions indicated word changes and directionality changes

VI. First use of instrument **(handout #3: results by school)**
  A. Sample: every 4th student on rosters of all schools
  B. 203 usable returns (34% response rate)
  C. Discriminative index
    1. assumption: global construct with underlying normal distribution
    2. computed using total score, top vs bottom quartiles
    3. all items had positive index, varying from +.23 to +.81
  D. Alpha reliability
    1. +.95
  E. Results, generally (total score); (transparency #4)
    1. grand μ = 104; grand σ = 17
    2. secondary with lower mean, higher variability than 4 elementaries
        a. μ = 91; = 19 (1 school)
    3. elementary means: μ = 103 to 112 (5 schools)
    4. elementary variability: σ = 12-16 (4 schools); σ = 19 (1 school)

VII. Revision **(handout #4: revised instrument)**
  A. revis d all items with discriminative index below +.40
    (items 4, 6, 8, 13, 22, 28)
  B. team of 5 AEL staff members commented on revisions
    (item 13 was dropped and item 8 was split into two items)
  C. "Results by School" handout has original items
  D. "AEL's Level of Involvement Questionnaire" has revised instruments

VIII. Problematic nature of parental involvement in US schooling
- A. history of professional "expertise" vs. parental "incompetence"
- B. school effects of parental involvement
- C. unanswered question: to what extent is it an effect of SES?

IX. Recommendations for use (**handout #5: "Grassroots Development"**)
- A. measures level--not quality--of parental involvement
- B. use to assess program impact on parents' perceptions (pre/post)
- C. refrain from comparing schools;
- D. if you must compare, determine significance levels of comparison

X. Offer
- A. If you want to use, contact AEL for procedures
- B. We will score in return for data; you put data on scantron forms

XI. ERIC/CRESS and AEL
- A. Clearinghouse services and products (**handout #6**)
  (database building; CD-ROM searches & workshops; publications)
- B. AEL services and products (**handout #7**)

Bonnie G. Joyce
Ann Cranston-Gingras
John S. Platt

Dept. of Special Education
University of South Florida
Tampa, FL.

A PROGRAM FOR PREPARING TEACHERS TO SERVE HANDICAPPED MIGRANT STUDENTS IN RURAL AREAS

Migrant children face extraordinary social, economic, and educational challenges. Searching for temporary or seasonal employment in agriculture, fishing, or food processing, migrant workers follow the growing seasons across the country. Migrant workers are usually paid on a piecework basis and most have annual incomes well below the national poverty level (Chin, 1984). Babies born to migrant workers suffer a 25% higher infant mortality rate than the general population and malnutrition among migrant children is 10 times higher than the national rate (Florida Impact, 1983).

Estimates on the number of children who work with their families harvesting crops across America range from 800,000 (Florida Impact, 1983) to more than one million (Malone, 1979). Migrant children have been called the most educationally disadvantaged group of youngsters in the United States (Laughlin, 1980). Below average academic achievement has been found to characterize the educational profiles of approximately 80% of the migrant students studied (Hinojosa & Miller, 1984; Johnson, 1985; Piaz, 1985; Springstead, 1981). Cardenas (1976) reported that at least 20% of the migrant students he studied had never started school. This finding is supported by Chin (1984) who noted that often, migrant children work in the fields rather than attend school in order to contribute to the family income.

According to the President's Commission on Mental Health (1978), the average child of non-farm working parents has a 96% chance of entering the ninth grade and an 80% chance of entering the twelfth grade. In comparison, the child of a migrant farm worker has only a 40% chance of entering the ninth grade and an 11% chance of entering grade twelve. Rollason (1985) and Ogletree and Janick (1982) report that approximately 90% of the migrant students they studied failed to finish high school. Predictors of drop out behavior among individuals in the general population characterize the migrant child's social and academic experience. Compounding the negative influences of low income, large family size, less educated parents, minority status, and school failure is the migrant life style with its continuous disruptions in schooling and resultant loss of instruction time (Garza, 1982).

Mobility has been identified as the dominant influence on the migrant child's school achievement with lower achieving migrant students being found to have been more mobile than their higher achieving counterparts (Chin, 1984; Interstate Migrant

Education Council, 1985; New York State Education Department, 1968; Plato, 1984). As reported by Nelken and Gallo (1978), migrant students indicated that the frequent moving adversely affected their relationships with potential friends and made it difficult to keep current with school requirements

Handicapped migrant students face even more significant educational challenges. A surprising lack of data concerning these individuals is indicative of the failure to identify and serve migrant students in need of special education. Barresi (1982) points out four possible explanations to account for the failure to identify the special education needs of migrant students. These include:

1. Many migrant handicapped children are never enrolled in school or are allowed to drop out early by their parents.
2. Teachers do not become familiar with the migrant child's needs.
3. Once mobile handicapped children are referred for assessment, they may move before the process is completed.
4. The culture and language of some migrant students may cause difficulties in accurate diagnosis.

Further barriers impede special education service delivery to migrant students if and when these individuals are identified. Major areas of difficulty are school record transfer and compatibility, interstate discrepancies in special education eligibilty requirements, and limited program options (Barressi, 1982; Hunter & Perry, 1980). Yssaldyke, Thurlow, Graden, Wesson, Algozzine, & Deno (1983) report that typically it is the persistence of a teacher that results in a student receiving special education services. A substantial need exists for trained special educators to assume advocacy roles in ensuring that migrant students with handicaps receive the education to which they are legally entitled. The following training program is designed to address this need.

Method

Project Participants

Participants selected for the project are required to have a bachelor's degree in education, work in a rural area of central Florida, and teach migrant students who are mild to moderately handicapped. Thirty teachers, representing pre-school through the secondary grades are included in the program. The majority of participants work within one of two counties in west central Florida. Both counties have a large migrant population for harvesting strawberries and citrus.

Participants are recruited by contacting directors of special education, directors and coordinators of migrant education, and principals of schools located in rural areas having large migrant populations. In addition, project staff work with program staff from university departments including special education, ESL-multi cultures, and anthropology, to disseminate information and recruit perspective participants into the program.

Course of Study

The training program is designed to provide instruction in the needed competencies for effectively serving mild and moderately handicapped migrant students in varying exceptionalities. The program, therefore, consists of courses required for state certification in varying exceptionalities, which are modified to include competencies in migrant education. The participants are required to take the modified special education courses in addition to courses in related areas that enhance their knowledge and effectiveness regarding the target population. Besides academic courses, participants are required to complete a 3 hour practicum experience in their own job setting under the supervision of a member of the project staff.

The special education courses are delivered at off campus sites to better serve teachers in rural areas. One course per semester is delivered in each of the counties with classes meeting one evening per week.

Course Content

The course content is designed to meet the specific needs of handicapped migrant students in rural areas. This population receives little attention in the literature and few programs address issues related to curriculum development for migrant handicapped students (Salend, Michael, & Taylor, 1984). The project, therefore, includes competencies having high face validity as well as other competencies that are being tested through field based research.

Course content is divided into three areas of competency development including; assessment, intervention, and cultural understanding. A discussion of each of these areas provides the reader with an understanding of the rationale for the content as well as the modifications needed to make the content appropriate to the migrant rural handicapped population.

Assessment. Assessment is critical to the academic instruction and vocational development of each handicapped student. This statement is especially applicable to handicapped migrant students. These students spend less time in school than do their non migrant counterparts and thus time spent in instruction is particularly critical. Teachers must assess academic performance quickly and accurately so students can be placed at the appropriate instructional level with minimal loss of instructional time. Toward this end, teachers are provided skills in curriculum based assessment, behavioral assessment, criterion referenced testing, and vocational interest inventories. Use of curriculum based assessment and strategies in precision teaching, provides the teachers with skills for monitoring student progress daily. This enables the teachers to assure the appropriateness of the academic skills as well as determine the needed modifications in instruction.

Teachers are also provided skills regarding the use of the Migrant Record Transfer System (MRTS). The MRTS contains a list of curriculum areas for which instruction is provided and is

also used to track migrant students as they move from school to school. It provides an excellent means for transferring valuable information, which may be used at the receiving school of the handicapped migrant student. This information enables the receiving teacher to quickly place the student in material relevant to his or her academic ability and the student avoids the frustration of endless re-evaluations.

Intervention. The relevance of individualized instruction, adaptation of instruction, and modification of materials is necessary in all programming for mild to moderately handicapped individuals (Polloway, Patton, Payne, & Payne, 1989). The teachers are instructed to utilize each of these skill areas and to incorporate them into each students daily plan.

Transition is also important to the success of each handicapped student. The teachers are taught how to effectively utilize the essential components of transition including; job seeking, job retention, personal adjustment, utilization of community resources that provide service to the handicapped, and identification of funding sources that support training for handicapped migrant students. These skills provide the teachers with ability to assist students in obtaining future training or for entering the work force.

Cultural understanding. Because the majority of the teachers are middle class Caucasians with little training in the Hispanic culture (which constitutes the majority of the migrant students in central Florida), teacher trainees are provided a six hour training module. This module provides the teachers with an historical perspective of the migrant population, portrayal of the living and working conditions of migrant families, awareness activities, and customs and mores of the Hispanic culture.

Competencies

Twenty five competencies are included in the rural migrant program. These competencies are listed below.

1. Develop IEP's for migrant handicapped students.
2. Maintain performance records of migrant handicapped students.
3. Monitor instructional programs in all training areas.
4. Consult with other teachers regarding instructional strategies and materials for enhancing academic performance.
5. Reinforce migrant handicapped students for positive academic behavior.
6. Adapt or construct materials for use with migrant handicapped students.
7. Adjust instructional programs based on feedback information.
8. Organize classroom for maximizing learning by considering schedules, seating arrangements, and learning activity centers.
9. Use task analysis for identifying the sequence of instruction.

10. Participate in transition programming activities (e.g. from school to vocational training or employment).
11. Implement career educational activities relevant to the migrant handicapped student.
12. Provide feedback to the handicapped migrant student regarding changes in performance.
13. Provide instructional strategies for integrating the handicapped migrant student with nonhandicapped students.
14. Implement strategies for managing conduct behavior of migrant handicapped students.
15. Adjust strategies for managing behavior based on feedback information.
16. Reinforce migrant handicapped students for positive social behavior.
17. Assess academic performance of the migrant handicapped student.
18. Assist parents in effectively working with their own migrant handicapped children.
19. Facilitate interaction with community agencies that provide services to migrant handicapped youth and families.
20. Explain the legal, medical, and educational terms regarding the migrant population.
21. Assist families with the medical and dental needs of migrant children.
22. Participate with the school based assistance team in identifying the needs of the migrant handicapped student.
23. Facilitate the transfer of records of migrant handicapped students.
24. Use the Migrant Student Record Transfer System for monitoring educational programs.
25. Provide other nonhandicapped students with an awareness of the needs of migrant handicapped students.

Program Evaluation

The effectiveness of the training program is evaluated through Q-sort methodology coupled with frequency data. For the first class meeting, the teachers are required to complete a Real Proficiency Q-Sort and an Ideal Proficiency Q-Sort (Joyce & Wienke, 1988). For the real Q-sort, the individual ranks his or her perceived proficiency on the project's 25 training competencies by sorting them into a matrix of boxes arranged in a normal distribution progressing from the "least proficient" to the "most proficient." After completing the real Q-sort, the teachers complete the ideal Q-sort. The directions for the ideal matrix are similar to the real matrix except teachers rate their ideal level of proficiency, as opposed to their real level, for each competency.

The effectiveness of any training program is determined by the generalization of acquired academic knowledge to implementation of the knowledge in the actual classroom setting. Teachers, therefore, are required to keep frequency data regarding which of the 25 competencies they apply in their classroom and the number of times each competency is used. This information is recorded daily by the teacher on a Data Catcher

Form. The Data Catcher lists all 25 competencies, time intervals, and days of the week. The teachers are required to self record for two, half hour intervals per day.

Upon completion of the training program, participants are readministered both Q-sorts. To evaluate the effectiveness of the training program, correlations between the pre and post sorts for each teacher's real and ideal sorts are calculated. The direction and degree of change indicates whether the instruction is effective in changing the real self, the ideal self, or both the real and ideal selves (Joyce, Wellington, Bloom, Wienke, & Platt, 1988). In addition, correlations between the frequency data and the Q-sorts are made to identify the relationship between frequency and changes in the participants' real and ideal proficiencies.

In conclusion, the Handicapped Migrant Student Program is funded through a rural personnel preparation grant under the Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services. The funds are used for training teachers in competencies regarding handicapped migrant education over a three year period.

References

Barresi, J. G. (1982). Educating handicapped migrants: Issues and options. Exceptional Children, 48, 473-484.

Cardenas, J. A. (1976). Education and the children of migrant farmworkers: An overview. Inequality in Education. Center for Law and Education, Harvard University.

Chin, S. (1984). Federal legislation and the migrant farmworker. Center for Public and Urban research, Georgia State University.

Florida Impact. (1983). Farmworker's: Who cares? A four part study.

Garza, J. O. (1983). Migrant secondary student dropout behavior: Issues and research agenda. Section IV: Final report. Center for Public and Urban Research, Georgia State University.

HinoJosa, D. & Miller, L. (1984). Grade level attainment among migrant farm workers in south Texas. Journal of Educational Research, 77 (6), 346-350.

Hunter, B. & Perry, J. (1980). Secondary school programs for migrant students. ECS Migrant Education Task Force.

Johnson, F. (1985). Junior high migrant student services: A compendium. Interstate Migrant Secondary Services Program, New York: State University College at Oneonta.

Joyce, B. G., Wellington, C. E., Bloom, L. A., Wienke, W. D., Platt, J. S. (1988). The Q-sort as an instrument for individualizing and evaluating the effect of instruction. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Joyce, B. G. & Wienke, W. D. (1988). Preparing teachers in behavior disorders through an innovative teacher training program. Rural Special Education Quarterly, 9 (2), 4-9.

Laughlin, M. A. (1980). An invisiable minority: An examination of migrant education. Paper presented at the Annual Conference on Ethnic and Minority Studies, Lacorsse, Wisconsin.

Malone, B. J. (1979). The migrant education program in Polk County, Florida. Ann Arbor: University Microfilms.

Nelken, I. & Gallo, K. (1978). Factors influencing migrant high school students to drop out or graduate from high school. Chico, CA: Nelken and Associates, Inc. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 164 245).

New York State Department of Education. (1968). Educating migrant children. Albany: The University of the State of New York.

Ogletree, E. & Janick, J. (1982). The status of school credit transfer and education of migrant students in fifty states. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 222 302).

Piaz, R. (1985). Correlates contributing to the school success or failure of Mexican-American students. Oroville, CA: Region II Migrant Education Service Center.

Plato, K. C. (1984). Program for migrant children's education: A national profile. National Association of State Directors of Migrant Education.

Polloway, E., Patton, J., Payne, J., & Payne, R. (1989). Strategies for teaching learners with special needs (Vol. 4). Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.

President's Commission on Mental Health. (1978). Task panel report: Migrant and seasonal farmworkers. Washington, D.C.

Rollason, W. N. (1985). Half in...half out: A report on the migrant child. Immokalee, FL: Redlands Christian Migrant Association.

Salend, S. J., Michael, R. J., Taylor, M. (1984). Competencies necessary for instructing migrant handicapped students. Exceptional Children, 51 (1), 50-55.

Springstead, E. (1981). Migrant drop-out study, 1980-1981: Final evaluation. Austin, TX: Texas Education Agency, Division of Migrant Education.

Ysseldyke, J. E., Thurlow, M., Graden, J., Wesson, C., Algozzine, B., Deno, S. (1983). Generalizations from five years of research on assessment and decision making: The University of Minnesota Institute. Exceptional Education Quarterly, 4, 75-93.

Judith A. Kahn, M.S.W.
Georgianna Larson, R.N., M.P.H.
Pathfinder
5000 West 39th Street
Minneapolis, MN 55416

MEETING NEEDS WITH SCARCE RESOURCES: COMMUNITY NETWORK BUILDING FOR LOW-INCIDENCE CONDITIONS

Introduction

It is estimated that at least ten percent of all children and youth have a chronic illness or disability. These children and their families have a special set of needs which require the involvement of many agencies and programs in their community. Families must cope with challenges in obtaining appropriate and available services, adequate financing of care, emotional adjustment, changing family dynamics as well as a definition of their place in the community. Such challenges often require the assistance of outside agencies as well as community planning for special services and needs.

Because these children have special needs, the services they require must be obtained from different agencies including the child's primary health care provider, medical specialist, school, county social services, advocacy organizations and other community groups. Fragmentation and duplication can develop, with families caught in the middle. Cooperation among representatives from the key community agencies could be beneficial to the community, family and child.

In October 1983, Pathfinder was awarded a competitive grant from the Division (Bureau) of Maternal and Child Health, Department of Health and Human Services under the category of Special Projects of Regional and National Significance (SPRANS). The grant was awarded to Pathfinder for the development of a community network model for children with chronic health conditions and their families. The demonstration projects were located in the Minnesota communities of Albert Lea and Austin and in Eau Claire, Wisconsin. Specific activities included task force development, community needs assessment implementation, development of an action plan and evaluation of the local network.

The model is based on four key assumptions:

•Children with chronic health conditions and their families face a common set of problems, regardless of the specific condition or disability;

•Services for these children and their families can be improved by enhancing cooperation among existing health, school and community programs, rather than creating new programs;

•Community network building can be best facilitated if the network is begun at the community level; and

• Community network building for these children and their families will be most effective if parents are involved in network planning and service development.

Pathfinder Community Network

Anyone can initiate a community support network. Interagency collaboration is not a new concept; it has been utilized to plan and deliver services in the health, education, social service and voluntary sector. Pathfinder took this familiar concept and developed a unique model for a specific population: children with chronic illness or disability. Services for these children, especially in rural communities with low incidence conditions, can be fragmented and incomplete. Agencies tend to plan services for these children according to the disability and the current population. Long range planning and systems change rarely occurs.

Pathfinder believes that community service planning and delivery for children with chronic health conditions can occur if this population is perceived to have a common set of problems, regardless of the specific condition or disability. The community can then enhance the current service system to accommodate these special needs. The population, which if identified by disability, seems very small; grouping the children makes the planning effort seem more workable.

The Pathfinder community network model also utilizes the concept that the effort works well if initiated and maintained informally at the community level. The "formal informality" of the local structure us a positive for long range efficacy of the model.

Parents are the key to the Pathfinder community network model. Although it was often difficult to solicit and maintain parent participation, their input was essential in both needs identification and systems planning.

The community network model is firmly based on the belief that flexibility is essential, and each community will develop a unique system to network services. The key is the development of common commitment to the population and a willingness to try something new.

PHASE ONE: Formation Of The Local Task Force

Development of a community network is a structured, consecutive process. Working relationships must be developed among the parties involved and these relationships must be based on mutual respect and understanding. Ultimately, the formation of the local task force is catalyzed by the perception of problems and a shared need to find solutions to those problems.

Pathfinder structured the development of the community network around an outside facilitator; Pathfinder served as the facilitator/consultant for both networks. An outside facilitator can be a valuable asset in providing important feedback to the group and objectively critiquing activities and ideas. This person can be instrumental in bringing the initial group together, coordinating the needs assessment and structuring the action plan.

An initial meeting should be called to bring key participants together. The purpose of this meeting is to help key participants become acquainted and familiarize themselves with other programs and services, to introduce the concept of community network development and to identify common problems. The questions of group mission, purpose and leadership are best dealt with after the needs assessment step.

The main function of leadership in a community network task force is to ensure that the tasks necessary to plan and carry out the group's goals are accomplished. This leadership responsibility may be undertaken by one individual or shared by several members.

Team members usually become more involved and committed to the work of the group when leadership functions are shared by the leader with group members. An Executive Committee, composed of the task force chairperson(s) and subcommittee chairpersons, can function as a governing board for the Task Force.

PHASE TWO: Community Needs Assessment

In order to determine the needs and resources for children with chronic health conditions and their families, the task force must agree on the target population and the geographic area (community).

Definition of Community

A "community" can be defined in many ways. Each professional organization has different geographical boundaries in which it delivers services. Education might have a city-wide school district, public health and social services a county-wide population, and a voluntary organization a multi-county constituency. Each local task force must agree upon a common area for its functioning. In its demonstration projects, Pathfinder defines the community as the geographic area in which FAMILIES receive services, i.e., their health care provider, school, shopping and employment. This allows flexible boundaries which cross traditional catchment areas and reduces turf-guarding among the professionals involved.

Target Population

A definition of the target population also needs to be mutually agreed upon by task force participants. Pathfinder developed the following definition for use in the local demonstration projects in Minnesota and Wisconsin:

A chronic health condition is defined as an illness or disability which necessitates that a child, aged 0-21 years, receive individually planned services for an extended time.

Assessment of Needs and Resources
Once the target population and the community have been defined the first activity of the task force should be to conduct a community assessment of current resources and needs. The format which was used by Pathfinder and developed with the assistance of evaluation consultants is a *key informant approach* to assess current perceptions of resource availability, resource quality and prioritization of needed changes.

PHASE THREE: Development and Implementation of the Action Plan
The community needs assessment will provide the Task Force with a list of needs and resources. The Task Force can then set goals and priorities for action. Planning strategies to accomplish these goals is the next step. Tasks for carrying out the strategies should be clearly defined and assigned to subcommittees composed of persons who have a particular interest or expertise in an issue.

Network Development Strategies
The following are examples of various strategies used by the Pathfinder demonstration projects in Minnesota and Wisconsin. These strategies include:

- Interagency Collaboration
- Parent Group Development
- Educational Programs
- Resource Development

•Interagency Collaboration
Working relationships based on understanding and mutual respect are the basis of a successful network. Issues of territoriality, responsibility, competition and costs are very real and need to be addressed. Pathfinder demonstration project interagency collaboration was based on informal linkages and person/position-based rather than agency-based sharing. Cooperative agreements were not developed; this allowed Pathfinder activities to be viewed as an informal structure which did not add a new agency to the local mix.

Example:

> In one of the southern Minnesota communities, public health nurses (supplying school nurse activities for local school districts), the district special education coordinator, and interested parents worked together to design a school nurse schedule, clarification of the school nurse role and a protocol for management of the student with diabetes.

•Parent Group Development

A parent support group or parent advocacy group may be part of a community network effort. It may be one solution to an area where parents are seeking mutual support or are advocating for services.

Example:

> Parents of children with diabetes and the social services director at the local hospital formed a support group in one of the Pathfinder demonstration projects. The addition of the health professional to the group increased their ability to network with other support groups, provided free meeting space and access to hospital resources, and increased the group's ability to recruit new members.

•Educational Programs

A workshop geared toward health professionals, school personnel, community agency staff and parents is a useful networking tool. Workshops bring people together to share information and ideas. For these reasons, a workshop is also a good way to initiate a network. It can provide an atmosphere for collaboration toward a common goal and a forum to carry it out.

Example:

> Each of the demonstration communities sponsored educational workshops for professionals and parents on issues for families of children with chronic health conditions and the professionals that serve them. The workshops brought together those who were participating in the network demonstration project with other parents and professionals in the region. It also proved to be an effective way to solidify and advertise Pathfinder Task Force activities.

•Resource Development

Collaborative efforts between agencies can produce valuable resources for children with chronic health conditions, their families and the professionals that serve them. The specific resource(s) will depend on the identified need and the resources of the cooperating agencies. With in-kind contributions from individuals/agencies working on the development of the resource, a quality product can be developed with limited funding.

Example:

> Pathfinder, in cooperation with the School Nurse Organization of Minnesota (SNOM), Gillette Children's Hospital and the Minnesota Department of Health developed a manual for those working with children with chronic illness or disability in the school setting. Authors contributed their chapters without

reimbursement and the state health department provided illustrations and printed a limited number of free copies. The manual, *Managing The Student with a Chronic Health Condition: A Practical Guide For School Personnel*, is currently being distributed by Pathfinder for $19.95. Over 1000 copies of the first edition were sold nationally and the Minnesota Department of Health distributed a free manual to each school district and county public health nurse agency in Minnesota.

PHASE FOUR: Evaluation of the Network

An evaluation of the community network process is essential to obtain information on how well the local network functions and whether the group activities have made any impact on children with chronic health conditions. Pathfinder contracted with an outside consultant to independently evaluate community network model development in each of the demonstration projects. The evaluation demonstrated that the local Pathfinder task force had become a "presence" in each community. Task force members felt that Pathfinder activities had been a valuable addition to the community. More importantly, each local group made the decision to continue beyond the funding period of the Pathfinder grant. Each had become a self-sustaining entity in their community structure.

CONCLUSIONS

The development of a community network to improve services for children with chronic health conditions and their families takes planning, commitment, enthusiasm and interest. The key ingredients for the development of a successful network are:

- cooperative working relationships between individuals and agencies;
- a formal needs identification process;
- leadership development in the task force and its subcommittees;
- realistic funding for projects to meet the identified needs; and
- clear and open communication.

A comprehensive description of the process of developing the Pathfinder community networks can be found in the manual, *Guidelines From Pathfinder: How To Develop A Community Network*. The manual contains general principles as well as a step-by-step process for creating a network in any community. *Guidelines from Pathfinder* is available from Pathfinder at the above address.

Wilbur F. Kalinke
P.O. BOX 432
Wausau, WI 54402

PREVENTING DROPOUT RUNAWAYS*

Dropout prevention is not an unusual focus in all schools, urban and rural, but developing dropout prevention methods and materials based on national interviews of dropout runaways is a different approach.

This At-Risk or Low-Incidence population affects our national security and economic strength. They might be labled The Distracted Ones. They have a difficult time concentrating in a typical classroom situation as they are distracted by concerns for events that happened before they left home or are worried about what might happen when they leave school. Whether female or male, they worry about rape, beatings, suicide, bondage, verbal abuse, accidents, illness, homelessness, AIDS, family fragmentation, law officers, loneliness, starvation, rejection, prostitution, drugs, rage, escape, and helplessness. Their threats are both external and internal.

Their cost to the nation is fourfold. (1) They drop out of school before they learn acceptable marketable skills. (2) Their potential contributions to society are lost. (3) They resort to unacceptable illegal means of survival. (4) They drain the resources of educational, social, health, and correctional agencies.

Survival is their primary goal. They will take whatever action is needed, as they determine, to survive. Only if education in school is viewed by them as a high priority for survival will they sustain concentration and block their distractions. The direct-contact educators make the difference.

Youth in crisis under extreme real or perceived stress make choices, tradeoffs, when they perceive danger. They submit, withdraw, ignore, retaliate, get help, or commit suicide.

While success cannot be assured for the survival, happiness, and productivity of all potential or real dropout runaways, success can be within the reach of far more of The Distracted Ones than at present.

Educators who wish to be effective need to know as much as possible about the danger, the youth, their choices, the warning signs, preventive techniques, and remedial actions.

Based on my travels nationwide to interview dropout runnaways who had survived, they have much in common even though each case is unique.

Common characteristics found in my interviews were that they:

1) typically drop out and run away at age fourteen; an age when they can't tolerate their situation any more and they can work out a plan that makes it possible to escape (they made earlier attempts that failed because of size, appearance, money, direction, and experience),

2) have survival for the moment as their primary instinctive goal (they are motivated to live without torture),

3) are creatively intelligent in working out a plan that works to run away and to keep surviving,

4) are handicapped educationally whether due to birth, accident or environment,

5) achieved in school average or better through grade three after which grades fluctuated downward,

6) had good relations with teachers until grades dropped, absenteeism

increased, and conflicts were personalized,

7) felt they had no one to turn to for open discussions of feelings and problems, much less help (even their peer group deserted unless they also planned escape),

8) had one or more reasons to escape, such as beatings, rape, isolation, being locked in a room, starvation, thirst, verbal attacks, attempted killing,

9) are determined, energetic, tough fighters who make their own rules to survive,

10) were called rebellious, antisocial, troublemakers, no-good, worthless and rotten,

11) were not going to commit suicide even though they had thought of it,

12) were blamed and punished from early ages for things siblings and friends did,

13) were capable of escaping parents, social workers, police, and private detectives,

14) were willing to do anything to survive, such as live on the street, sleep sitting up anywhere, beg, sell sex and drugs, go for days without eating, and eat garbage,

15) are accomplished at acting happy, sad, angry, innocent—whatever will fit the situation,

16) listen and observe well for survival clues (parents, teachers, and other adults often criticized them for lack of listening to them),

17) are sensitive to the feeling of others (are charitable when possible to others in need) but personal survival comes first,

18) are suspicious of motives of entrapment or of do-gooders who have hidden agendas,

19) are open, honest and loyal after you gain their trust,

20) are sufficiently verbal to mask other weaknesses,

21) are able to switch to extremes of emotions rapidly if situations shift,

22) are able to run and hide for safety,

23) appeared to have learning disablities in school which prevented the use of high achievement as a means of escape (lacked confidence in school activities),

24) were verbally and physically kicked by everyone as they started sliding so they accelerated to the bottom,

25) often slept restlessly ready to escape (their travel bag was packed ready to go),

26) are relatively healthy under the circumstances in that their bodies withstood much abuse, including inadequate diets and illnesses without doctors or medication,

27) are peace loving, wanting a world without violance and bias,

28) want attention, affection, love and caring,

29) are afraid to trust, to care, to love, or to cry in public,

30) are lonely, defiant, angry, and depressed,

31) are afraid that their experiences might affect their chances for the type of life they want which often includes marriage, children, peace and happiness,

32) experienced broken family structures and multiple community moves such as associated with single or divorced parents,

33) often were children of veterans,

34) perceived conflicting messages and actions from agency representatives proposing to be of assistance,

35) want to get ahead, to prove themselves to family and others, will take chances, and will work hard (even if it is to sell drugs or sex) to succeed,

36) will attempt manipulation and deception as a means to immediate survival

and happiness,

37) spend money as fast as received for immediate pleasures as tomorrow may never come,

38) cover or withstand pain rather than seek help,

39) are from all areas of the country, and

40) are from all economic backgrounds.

The choices these youth face might be summarized as that of committing suicide, submitting, ignoring, withdrawing, retaliating, or getting help.

Suicide is considered by most, attempted by few, but ruled out as not appropiate as it would not accomplish an improvement but might seriously upset loved friends.

Submitting is seldom considered. They seek a better life. They don't want to give in to a life of beatings and other cruel abuse.

They often try to ignore their hurt but they reach a limit to their tolerance.

Retaliation is considered but they prefer peace and a life without violence.

Some aren't believed and are punished for telling a lie. For some help is simply another form of cruelty, not a solution.

Withdrawing or running is the only sensible solution for them. After so much pain they can only concentrate on escaping, getting away from the hurt.

Youth who may run away give increasing levels and numbers of warning signs which may not be noticed, may be misinterpreted, or which may not receive appropriate attention. Transient populations create added problems for detection as behavioral baselines are often missing.

Changes in habits, moods, and attitudes provide warning signs. Schools that have many transients and move staff or students every fifty minutes have little structured opportunities to spot warning signs. It is as important to notice behavioral changes that are acceptable as well as those that are unacceptable. Pleasing actions may be masking inner turmoil or may be a planned cover for escape. Unexpected behavioral changes may be signals that a decision has been made to pursue a plan of action. That plan may even be to kill the oppressor.

Observe changes within short periods of time in cleanliness, clothing, movements, eye contact, voice, use of hands, writing, conversations, eating, withdrawal, weight, alertness, involvement, health, accidents, achievement, attendance, and concentration.

Preventive and remedial or corrective actions should start anytime. Although we like to focus on starting young, at birth with the right set of parents and the right environment, that is not the final solution for all. Even if a child got off to a good start, situations change and influence each person differently. An accident, the loss of a loved one, divorce, alcohol, drugs, illness, and financial hardships are factors that could trigger the need for help. It is never too late. While it may seem easier to train a young child to be prepared for dealing with life and death it isn't impossible to retrain an older person. It may actually be easier and require less time. The key word may be readiness, motivation, or desire.

Although early childhood education may be perceived by some as the answer to dropout prevention, early childhood education cannot anticipate and prepare for every contingency nor would every child be ready to learn or find the learning meaningful. The quantity and quality of variables affecting the life of a child appear to be ever increasing. Thus, some children will not be prepared for the critical events that occur into their teens.

Therefore, educators must be prepared to apply remedial and corrective action as well as preventive at all ages. There is no age that is too old to be effective

IF that youth is receptive and finds the learning experiences meaningful to effect the desired results for survival, happiness, and productivity.

Think of each young person as though that child were your own. Each is a fellow human who, for whatever the reason, is a timebomb just ticking away until there is an explosion or implosion. You and your actions might make the difference. You might be able to provide an opportunity for change. Consider the following actions as your contributions to saving a child:

1) model your expectations for youth, and be prepared to provide a model for as long as 50% of their age (if the youth is 16, give him 8 more years to model for lifetime changes), practice consistent controlled behaviors,

2) avoid conflicting behaviors by modeling those that are desired, with patience and suggestions for another way,

3) recognize that antisocial conflict-inducing behaviors may only be survival reactions to situations that remind them of danger; recognize attempts to manipulate and ask why,

4) ask them about their life-threatening experiences so that you might avoid threatening words, actions and touching and so you might structure desensitization in various settings,

5) strive for mutual understandings, as a starter, empathy not sympathy, so there is mutual acceptence of humans with problems and burdens,

6) model your own survival achievement skills to provide a feeling of strength and security on which they might lean when needed, (a strong older sibling, parent, or grandparent substitute),

7) help them unload or set aside their fear of the past, or of the night, so they can concentrate on learning for survival and goals of enjoyment; it is difficult to learn aostract content for future use while there is fear of the present, future, or past,

8) use achievement as a path to escape, to happiness, and to productivity so they can concentrate on learning and not on abuse; help them achieve skills, knowledge and behaviors as weapons for achievement; make acquisition a step-at-a-time path to meaningful escape,

9) act as a mature adult who knows self and is in control of the situation so they can establish faith and confidence in you,

10) analyze and know yourself well physically, intellectually, and emotionally and practice your own self-improvement schedule before you set about working with another on self-analysis and improvement schedules, be organized,

11) test the details of environmental effects on their nervous system (variations of lighting, touch, food, beverages, sounds, temperatures, smells, space, time, and positions may make differences for which accommodation must be found); get medical and dental exams,

12) develop a comfort-zone total environment, one of zero threats, to build a series of successful experiences (take them into a physical, mental, emotional non-threatening artificial situation, if necessary, and control sights, sound, smells, temperature, and body sensations),

13) talk about long-range goals until they start expressing dreams and directions which can then be broken into shorter objectives with small achievement steps; accept them and their present level as a base on which together you lay a building stone of achievement each day,

14) talk about how their past experiences will be of benefit in reaching their goals; they are successful survivors who can now put those experiences to use for they know much about the extremes of human emotions on which to build; don't criticize or condemn the past people or events, move onward to a better life,

15) develop non-threatening individualized approches to checking their levels

of comprehension, memory, transfer, and receptivity of messages; find deficit areas and help them develop coping, compensating, or concentrating strategies that work for them,

16) talk about how most of us want to conceal any inadequacies or lack of understanding and how they might help us develop to our mutual benefit; help them feel less threatened in sharing their lack of understanding and problems in learning,

17) talk about, model, and practice together listening techniques and how they might be used by them to increase their survival, well-being, and productivity,

18) talk about, model, and practice listening techniques and their benefits,

19) recognize that concentration on learning for long-term goals can only follow a reduction in fear of life-threatening situations; reduce one fear and add one bit of knowledge or skill one day at a time,

20) recognize that their belief in you must be earned by proving that you do have something to offer which will have power over their abusive situations; be able to offer proof,

21) identify the talent and creativeness that they developed in managing to survive and mutually explore how it might be used for gain as well as for preservation; compliment their resourcefulness and utilize those knowledges and skills for tranfer learning,

22) recognize that any purpose or reason that you express for their improvement is yours and not theirs; until they express purpose or reason for engaging in an activity, you are wasting time and energy,

23) provide consulting help in finding alternatives to the problem situations no matter how large or small (problem solving and decision-making skills are vital to survival and well-being); target one success each day,

24) use an equal partnership approach for mutual benefit, a win-win relationship, so that you avoid thoughts of force, constraint, or power which is countered until it explodes or implodes; cool it,

25) leave constraint, force or threats to police or the courts, that is their role,

26) practice genuine and sincere complimenting and praising for they are fantastic survivors of a jungle you may never wish to experience; don't be a phony and dont be condescending,

27) practice asking them for assistance in areas in which you wish to improve; strive for mutual trust and respect; each person must try to accept the other at their level of accomplishment and help develop from there,

28) ask for and accept criticism in areas in which you offend or hurt them and ask them to help you find another way, offer reciprocity help for mutual benefits as well as for consequences,

29) share when you have an off-day, apoligize when you err, and you will develop mutual caring and understanding (benefits and consequences are mutual),

30) look for solutions and alternatives to standard practices that don't work as opportunities for mutual gain (flexibility and creativity are vital),

31) when achievement is jagged, low in non-survival areas and high in immediate survival areas, look for ways of identifying and reducing barriers which might not be visible (always seek another way instead of closing doors); reduce one barrier each day and record one gain,

32) accept adult responsibility for a life you may help save as a listener, a supporter, a model, a teacher, and a frierd who cares; offer of yourself, your time, and your energy which will work more miracles than money can buy,

33) adopt a youth in need; model and accept responsibility that goes beyond institutional or governmental efforts; join hands with others in a comminity to

get commitment and involvement in all aspects of life and living,

34) offer your telephone number for 24-hour emergency listening or pick-up service; consider uniting with similar purpose others,

35) campaign against the slavery of children, no one should be an owner of another, parenthood is accepance of reponsibility not of ownership; focus on the right of a child to be a human and not a slave or a puppet of parents, foster parents or others,

36) be vigilante volunteers against foul play, assist courts in gathering evidence, assist legislators in monitoring and rewriting laws, support remedies, demonstrate leadership,

37) offer meaningful suggestions to parents and people in service agencies instead of just being critical (be positively aggressive in seeking immediate solutions), encourage a mutual "brother's keeper" attitude in which we all win or lose,

38) promote legislation which would allow public schools to have single lines of full authority and funding as legal full-time surrogate parents for up to age 30, if necessary, to remediate situations for youth in need, subject to review by state authorities and courts if complaints are registered,

39) develop and implement early childhood through high school curriculum and instuction packages for the emotional development of all youth for survival in personal, social, and occupational situations, and

40) dont wait, time is of essence and action needs to be taken rapidly when a youth with a need is identified; school boards are the most responsible local agencies to provide needed actions for twelve-month 24-hour service; these youth need surrogate parents in whom they can confide and to whom they can turn for help; they need confidantes on whom they can lean.

These are Distracted Youth. They are confused and lost. Give them a single line of authority with a structure for them to develop clear values, life-goals, short-term objectives, sequential activities, drive and self-discipline for delayed gratification.

Observe successful Alternative Education Plans such as at the Mount Senario College at Ladysmith, Wisconsin where youth from area rural school districts are given one last chance. With parent approval they are tuitioned to the College were they get tutorial assistance under the direction of a master teacher and support from the education faculty. The commitment of staff, parents, students, and related personnel is working. It's a model in it's beginning.

The next step is to increase involvement and commitment nationwide. This is a serious problem affecting all of us. Dropout runaways are involved in alcoholism, in drugs, in AIDS, in prostitution, and in crime when there appear to be no other solutions to life and living. We all pay the price of inaction. Students, parents, teachers, community groups, and political leaders must band together to study the issue and to make decisions for change.

Education, health, social, correctional, and job service agencies can no longer operate in isolation and blame each other for failure, lack of funds, lack of authority or lack of responsibility.

Find or start an interested group in your community. Distribute copies of materials I've developed. The materials are self-directive. Use them in your classrooms and with teacher and parent groups. They will stimulate and prompt plans of action.

Problem solving activities include such topics as City Clusters, Rural Runaways, Free Meals, Rape Victims, Ownership, Splintered Families, Incidence, Abuse, Suicide, and Violence.

Decision making activities include such topics as Gambling, Prostitution,

Blackmailing, AIDS, and Drug Dealing.

Role playing activities include such topics as Failure, Teen Parenthood, Sexual Abuse, Verbal Abuse, and Begging.

Living solution activities include Listen, Question, Apology, Thanks, Flip It, Laugh, Request, Involve and Praise.

In closing, remember that Mary and John may be your children, grandchildren, or those of your friend next door. Both were victims of rape and verbal abuse. It is not uncommon for those who are closest to be the most abusive. Parents, foster parents, uncles, clergy and camp counselors are usually respected by other adults and can avoid detection with a combination of threats and favors to the youth and sweet words to authorities.

Think of Jon and Jill who first had step-parents and then foster parents who liked to hit. Beatings started early in life. Drunk adults blamed children for standing in their way to success and happiness. When authorities came close they moved to another apartment.

You can make a difference but don't be a pretender. Don't pretend to listen. Don't pretend to care. Don't be a phony. They can sense phonies and you won't get their trust.

Start today to make your plan to organize and mobilize for needed change. Make up your mind to save just one child from a life of homelessness and hopelessness.

*Speech prepared for the Ninth Annual National Rural Special Education Conference in Ft. Lauderdale, Florida. The workshop materials followed the presentation.

Wilbur Kalinke
P.O. Box 432
Wausau, WI 54402

PREVENTING DROPOUT RUNAWAYS*

Mary and Paul were fourteen. Both were victims of long-term sexual abuse within their own bed by a close friend of the family who had been invited to stay at their home while between jobs. Both tried to get help by telling their teachers. Both ran because of slow response from responsible agencies.

Others might have fought back as did Ann who used a kitchen knife one night. Some commit suicide. A few submit to continued abuse. Some try to ignore, to imagine that nothing is happening that is wrong. Some go for help such as did Matt only to get slapped, hard, by his mother for telling such a lie about his pastor. Then he ran.

Every runaway that I interviewed in my nationwide travels had been abused by someone close to the family--a friend, a member of the church, a foster parent, a counselor. Abuse takes on many forms. Any form hurts whether sexual, verbal, or beatings.

Rick dropped out of school at age fifteen, a year later than most that I interviewed. Learning wasn't easy in school although he did all right on the two full-time jobs he held when I met him at age twenty-six. He was a hands-on learner who got what he needed at the two short-order restaurants in Tampa. He had come from a rural community over 900 miles away. His mother's brothers and sisters didn't believe in him. When his father died, he ran to prove to the rest that he could make it on his own.

Some run and turn to alcohol. Some try to make it at gambling like Jon who begged on the streets of Las Vegas for money to eat but which ended on the poker tables. Some turn to prostitution whether male or female. Some steal. Some, like Jack, get into sales--sales of drugs and sales of sex. Jack entertained wealthy ladies of L.A. He was a great short order cook, mixed super drinks, and had connections to get anything they wanted. When I met Jack, he had also mastered English, French, Spanish, Italian, Russian, and German. By this time he had a small business and blackmailed his best customers.

Mo was already a grandfather at age 30. He ran at fourteen from Alabama to Chicago, met another runaway, Michelle, and had a child at fifteen who had a child by fifteen. Mo ran because his mother slept with his uncle when his father was away. She sued for a divorce and married the uncle who knew that Mo knew what had happened. As stepfather, he beat Mo until Mo ran. Now at 30 he was a father, grandfather and a veteran.

Dropout runaways are not limited to poor or rich, male or female, city or rural. They come from everywhere. They cluster in cities like New Orleans, New York, Las Vegas, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Chicago and others but they come from everywhere, even the most rural areas.

While we focus on early childhood prevention activities and often think that age seventeen is too late, it is not. It is never too late to try for change.

Tim was twenty-two when I extended a helping hand. He had attempted running a number of times but was finally successful at seventeen. His father left when he was eleven. His mother tried killing him by choking. He was removed to a group foster home. He was abused repeatedly by the foster father. He was blamed by others for wrongdoings by companions. When I met him, he was living one day at a time. Money was spent as soon as received. He had taken handouts. He had eaten garbage. He had slept curled up on darkened doorways. He had dropped out

of high school. He had run. He had survived in whatever way he could and some ways weren't very pleasant.

Today Tim is successful, happy, and productive. He completed the GED for high school equivalency within one month of concentrated studying once he decided that he wanted a better life and the way was through the Army. He mastered negotiations and compromise while dating and then planning a wedding. He is married, completed basic and advanced training, and is planning at least twenty years in the Army. He is having $100 monthly for the first year deducted so that he can have $10,000 for college to be a teacher as a second career. While in service, he will continue to study to advance rank to get the highest possible retirement benefits.

In just fifteen months of concentrated effort, patience, perseverance, fortitude, and modeling the life style he wanted, I was able to help Tim get a birth certificate, develop goals, set and achieve objectives, develop listening habits, learn to drive, double his bowling scores, complete a GED, give and accept love, gain a family to replace his lost one, plan marriage, and start a career. Tim made a leap from one world to another. I became the parents he lost.

The story of Greg is less spectacular. He finished high school on his own by living with a friend and working part-time to support himself. Greg needed someone to listen to him, to provide indirect counseling to rebuild his confidence after rape, and to help him set goals with strategies to reach them. Today Greg is working one job 45 hours a week as a motel assistant manager while he keeps plugging away at his prime goal of advertising designer.

Many stories can be told including those that ended in tragedies. With all the stories there are many commonalities. There are many lessons to be learned. There are things that can be done to bring about changes in their lives which affect all of us. Dropout runaways turn to non-productive means of survival which cost all of us. They sell sex and drugs. They beg and steal. They are underachievers who will do or work at anything to survive.

When they have time to dream it is about peace and a world without bias. They just don't know how to go about it. You can start anytime with any age. Start by examining your hang-ups. Are you baised about behaviors of youth who run? Can you deal with it? Can you provide them help to change without condeming them? Are you prepared for abusive language, arguments, and prostiution? Are you prepared for long hours, exhaustion, and defeat?

If so, your reward can be unconditional love and gratitude. You can feel the touch of a spontaneous hug from one who withdrew like a caged animal from your first touch.

It can be done.

Start by getting acquainted with yourself. Inventory your physical, intellectual, and emotional characteristics. Invite others to help with your assessment. The better you know yourself, the better you can help others to know themselves.

Identify areas in which you want to improve. Develop and work the plan. Have others monitor and evaluate your progress. Be partners in progress with the youth you wish to help. Model a desire and efforts for improvement.

A common habit is that of talking instead of listening. Practice listening and questioning until the other person starts questioning. All of us tend to talk too much.

Find out why there are sudden changes in behavior, whether acceptable or unacceptable. Watch for warning signs for possible dropout runaways. Changes in eye contact, voice, body movements, grades, friendships, or appearance may indicate something is troubling the youngster. Perhaps the youth is worrying

about sexual abuse, beatings, alcoholism, drugs, divorce, yelling, homelessness or starvation.

A teacher may do the most enlightening presentation in the world but unless the youth is attending, is ready, is motivated, the instruction is falling short. Get acquainted, know their concerns, enlist the aid of others, improve their conditions, and illustrate for them that education is a way out of their situation. Education has opened doors of opportunity for many, including me. Let it help them too.

Give a thorough check for disabilities. Arrange for a comprehensive medical exam. Test and observe for learning disabilities. Continue to make observational notes which can track inconsistencies and abnormalities. Their disabilities are often intertwined with their problems at home. Take nothing for granted. Don't assume that they couldn't be victims of rape from a foster parent. Don't assume that they come from a "good" home. Be a Sherlock Holmes. Investigate.

Take on a special case and try to make a difference. My latest case is age nineteen and in jail. He lost parents at a young age. His speech and other disabilities interfered with successful foster home placement and so he was transferred a number of times. He made his way without structure, without defined consistent values, without goals, without direction. After attempted suicide, alcoholism, and a sex abuse charge he was jailed. The correctional system now demands justice. I don't know the answer but I am full of questions. We need to question ourselves and our system in a continuing search for answers.

Unfortunately, there is no Disneyworld approach for parent, teacher, or service provider to suddenly understand all about dropout runaways. I invite all of you to shed your life style, put on old faded jeans and spend a week with the young beggars, prostitutes, and con-artists on Polk, Castro, and Bourbon Streets. If you don't have the time or money, at least organize groups for Role Playing, Problem Solving, and Decision Making Activities where I expose situations and invite you to develop local solutions. Adapt and expand on Living Solution practices of listening, questioning, praising, requesting, laughing, apologizing, thanking, involving, and flipping. You need to not only know their individual learning styles but also need to know their blocks to learning the priorities you have determined. Teaching, thereafter, is no different than for others in your classrooms but you need to add Living or Survival Solutions to their curriculum. Unless they can survive, forget it. And, survival for them is a 24-hour 365-day ordeal.

Never Too Late

Mike, a dropout runaway who lived with me for fifteen months, couldn't be with us today because he is now in the Army. He gives this message to you.

We could have titled out text "Nobody's Listening." I'm Mike, one of those who survived.

Many people ask questions of runaways or of those who might consider running.

They pretend to listen by leaning forward and appearing to hear.

They repeat what they think might or should have been said.

The runaway, or potential, clams up since that's not what they said or intended and they think that there is just another person who doesn't listen.

The runaway gives up on finding a listening responsible adult.

Running is the only way to escape what is perceived as an impossible situation.

Try having another youth or adult observe and listen when you have a conversation with a runaway potential or critique you on your listening and reaction/responding behaviors.

Let the observer make notes as to words you use that are turn-offs or that

bring cringes to facial muscles. Let the observer watch for reactions to the clothes you wear and to your body actions. Your voice, clothing, smells, and body actions communicate a language. The runaway potential will react according to unique experiences which are often buried until triggered. You might think there is only one meaning you are conveying, that which you intended.

The clothes you wear may include one item of the same type and color worn by an abusive mother. The way you motion with your hands may be the same way as the uncle at home who crawls into bed with the runaway. The tone of your voice may remind the youth of a condescending teacher who always patted you on the head and said, "Now, that's a good boy. Let's always do it that way."

Remember juice is not always a drink and a hustler is not always at a pool table. Juice can also represent power through political or social connections and a hustler may sell sex. Definitions are individualized and personal. Watch for shifting eyes and facial muscles around eyes, jaws and mouth. If there is a shift, stop and ask if you said or did something that offended or hurt. Runaways will often appreciate your concern and thank you by telling you about a flashback to a cruel experience. You may think that a touch on the arm or shoulder is a sign of friendliness but it may bring on a flashback of a molester or rapist. Trigger them and you may get violence.

Know the words and actions to which you are sensitive. You may not be able to desensitize yourself and that's all right. You are human. But, tell the youth ahead of time that just as they are sensitive to some things so are you. If it is "f __ you" then tell them that if you cringe it is only because it bothers you. In most cases, they will try to respect that you are also human and thus try to control the use of those words. Many of these youth are super-sensitive. If they weren't, they wouldn't be as likely to want to run or as likely to have survived.

Use successive approximations to reduce your sensitivity to touch, words, voice and clothes so that you can work out a gradual process of helping the youth reduce sensitivity.

I'm one of the survivors. I did my first serious attempt at running away at age sixteen. I ran away from a group foster home along with several other boys. We were tracked down by police in an open field.

Of course, I made a number of unsuccessful attempts in my youth. For my size running was better than fighting.

It is not uncommon for those who are the closest to a youth to be the ones who are the most abusive. Parents, foster parents, uncles, clergy, friends of the family, and camp counselors are usually respected by other adults and can avoid detection with a combination of threats and favors to the youth and sweet pleasantries to authorities. The youth will take a lot, especially if it's better than they had or if they know of no alternative.

Although you might think they like the runaway life, they don't. They want to find ways to better themselves. They don't know how to unlock doors to get help without fear of being hurt some more. While you might not be able to help all of them, you may be able to prevent many youth from running away as the only means to survival.

Apologize when you have offended or erred. Let your words and tone of voice be sincere. Remember these youth tend to be super-sensitive and can detect a phony.

Praise for the actions and words you like. Keep it sincere. Don't be overly repetitive but do it immediately, clearly, and loudly enough to be effective. It doesn't hurt to say words like, "that's great, I love it, I love you, do it again, you're super." Even though they may be affectionate words, and you wouldn't use them in public as they may be embarassing, they are appreciated. But be careful.

Watch for facial reactions. Your words could be misinterpreted as that of a pervert or you might trigger a memory of a traumatic experience.

When you correct them simply tell them what they did or said that needed correction, why, and what they might have done or said that would not have been objectionable. Say what you need to say clearly and precisely and be done. Don't repeat or crunch down. Remember they are sensitive. Even though they may come on loud, aggressive, and rapid it may be in defense so as not to crack or cry. Crying in public is not done by boys or by tough girls. We do our crying at night in private.

Give responsibility. Show trust. Take one step at a time. Ask them to "make an important telephone call, pick up an item from the store, deliver a message, lock the door." Ask. If there is acceptance of the request, don't repeat, just expect, then praise.

Be sure the task of responsibility and the trust that is given is real and not phony or made up. A phony smells. Be sure there is an understanding as to failure consequences to the project; how all are hurt, not just that youth.

Reciprocity is understood. "You trust me and I'll trust you; you protect me and I'll protect you." Be open about it.

There may have been a long path of criticism without responsibility and trust. Ask for help in establishing the baseline, where to start and how much is reasonable. Be open. Share, Don't expect a one-way street. These youth are not puppets. They will accept consequences when they are fair. Warn them of risks and possible consequences and let them fail if they still try something. But don't close the door, allow them to try again and again.

Progress is made in a series of jerks forward, backward, and forward again. Forward speed is often determined by your ability to sense the need to pull back, ask forgiveness for going too fast, ask permission to start again or try another way, and thus keep gaining trust and confidence.

Pick up on needs as soon as possible. Abuse starts early in life. But it is never too late to help. You can make a difference. Without people like Truman, Dolly, Connie, Mel, and Will I would not be able to be with you today. They had faith, helped without expecting favors, and were like the parents and teachers I missed. Please do what you can to help others.

*Written for the Ninth Annual National Conference of the American Council on Rural Special Education, Ft. Lauderdale, Florida.

Merle B. Karnes, Ed.D.
Karen F. Beauchamp, Ph.D.
Rebecca J. Cook, M.Ed.
University of Illinois
Dept. of Special Education
Colonel Wolfe School
403 E. Healey Street
Champaign, IL 61820

Spectrum Early Childhood Program: Serving Children in Rural Champaign County

Under the 1986 amendments to the Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 99-457, providing the least restrictive environment has become a major issue of concern. This concern has led many professionals to examine alternatives for integrating handicapped children and nonhandicapped children. Professional organizations have recommended that the option for placement in preschool classes with normally developing children is a critical component of the LRE Continuum (McLean and Odom, 1988). The Division for Early Childhood of the Council for Exceptional Children recommends that placement be made in a program as much like programs for other children as possible, and to the maximum extent appropriate with nonhandicapped children. The Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps recommends that handicapped children be placed in classrooms where at least half the children are nonhandicapped. However, very few schools have been successful in providing integrated preschool programs (State Technical Assistance Resource Team, cited in Wiener and Koppelman, 1987). It is difficult to provide integrated programs in urban areas and even more difficult in rural areas. The following paragraphs give a background of the programs for handicapped administered by the University of Illinois beginning in 1973 and an explanation as to how there was a merger of programs resulting in the Spectrum Program designed to serve handicapped children from rural school districts in an integrated setting.

The JEEPH Program

The state of Illinois has legislation that permits local school districts to contract with other agencies to educate their handicapped children. In 1972, the University of Illinois joined forces with 13 rural Champaign County school districts and established a legal joint agreement which permitted the University of Illinois to educate young handicapped children (ages 3-5) from 13 rural Champaign County school districts. This program was referred to as JEEPH (Joint Early Education for Preschoolers with Handicaps) and operated under this name for 15 years (1973-1988). Children were transported to a center at the University of Illinois. During these years reverse mainstream was used to provide handicapped children with opportunities to interact with non handicapped children. No more than 5 nonhandicapped children were enrolled in a classroom that admitted a maximum of 10 handicapped children. A special education teacher certified by the state and a paraprofessional with 30 hours of training in an institution of higher learning were assigned to each classroom.

The program was funded by local school districts with reimbursement from the state with some limited funds from the federal government referred to as incentive fund. There were no charges to parents of the handicapped for services. The parents of the "peer models" paid a minimal fee for their children to participate in the program. The program consisted of a well

conceived well operated ongoing screening program. An interdisciplinary team diagnosed those that failed the screening and a decision was made as to whether or not a child needed a special class placement.

In the first few weeks school teachers and aids administered an on-going assessment instrument, Coordinating Assessment with Preschool Programming (CAPP) a transdisciplinary team worked together to meet the special needs of each child and linked the results on this instrument with curriculum. The program had a strong emphasis on language and the development of affective skills and was largely teacher directed. Family involvement was felt to be a very important component of the program as was collaboration with other agencies and procedures for transitioning children to the next level. Evaluation was built into the program.

The ALPHA Program

From 1985-1988 another joint agreement referred to as ALPHA was formed between the University of Illinois and the 13 school districts in rural Champaign County to serve 3-5 year old children referred to as "children at risk for academic failure". Offices and classrooms were centrally located in rented church facilities. Funding in this program came from the Illinois State Board of Education made possible through the 1985 School Reform Act. Parents paid no fees for their children to attend this program. Transportation was partially paid by the local school districts and from project funds.

The ALPHA program provided three levels of intervention to children and their families. ALPHA I, represented the least intensive level of service. Children were monitored every six months to determine how they were progressing. ALPHA II, the next level of intensive services involved providing a home-based Family Involvement Plan, which was characterized by parent education, and monitoring of child and family progress. ALPHA III, the most intensive service, involved center-based preschool classrooms. Children in this program had the greatest risk for academic failure and were bussed in from the 13 school districts. Each segregated classroom contained 16 children at risk for academic failure with a teacher trained in regular early educaior and an aide with 30 hours of college training. The educational program was more informal than the JEEPH program, however, the same on-going asesssment instrument as used in JEEPH identified the strengths and weaknesses of the children. Preplanned activities that are linked with the assessment instrument were used. More of the program was informal than is true of the JEEPH program. Child Find was a cooperative arrangement between the JEEPH and ALPHA programs.

Steps Taken to Launch the Spectrum Integrated Program

Knowing that handicapped children need normalizing settings, there was concern that the ALPHA program was a segregated program and the JEEPH program provided the handicapped children with minimal opportunities to be integrated with nonhandicapped children. Also there was a strong committment among staff to develop a more integrated plan to serve the handicapped and the children at risk for academic failure. After a search of the literature to obtain the latest research findings and expert thinking on integration and "best practice" coupled with a series of meetings with state personnel who provided leadership for the handicapped and for children at risk for academic failure, with representatives from the 13 school districts and with University professionals with expertise in early education of the handicapped or regular early education, a plan was evolved to improve the opportunities of handicapped children to be provided to be integrated with nonhandicapped children. This program is known

as Spectrum. It provides children with the opportunity to interact with peers who come from a wide variety of backgrounds and with a variety of skill levels which increase the complexity and stimulation of their environment. Biklen (1985) states that this can be accomplished in a well-planned, systematic and comprehensive manner.

Goals of the Spectrum Program

The following goals have guided the development of the Spectrum Program:

1. To identify children ages 3 to 5 who are at risk for academic failure or are in need of preschool special education services.
2. To provide a public school setting for the integration of preschool handicapped and nonhandicapped peers.
3. To provide an alternative, least restrictive program option along a continuum of program options.
4. To increase the educational benefit for all children by giving them opportunities to work and play with children who have a wide range of abilities, interests, learning styles, socioeconomic backgrounds, talents, and special needs.
5. To provide a language-based environment to enhance the language development as well as development in other areas of all participating preschool children.
6. To develop individualized services for each child in the Spectrum Program.
7. To provide a variety of preschool special education services in a less restrictive environment (when compared with a segregated preschool special education program).
8. To maintain and develop procedures for administering a comprehensive, integrated early intervention system for children ages 3 to 5 who have a wide spectrum of educational needs and abilities.
9. To increase communication between special and regular education preschool teachers and to pool their expertise to benefit each child's educational program.
10. To provide for the staff intensive inservice training on integration strategies and techniques.
11. To identify and demonstrate strategies for increasing social interaction between handicapped and nonhandicapped children.
12. To demonstrate comprehensive training and support services for parents of preschool at-risk students, handicapped children, and community children with no particular educational needs.
13. To develop procedures that will enhance a smooth transition of the child and, his family to the next educational setting.
14. To develop viable procedures for recruiting and determining eligibility of nonhandicapped children, "models".

Issues and Problems in Launching the Spectrum Program

One of the challenges in launching the Spectrum Program was to recruit nonhandicapped children to participate in the program since the program was launched late in the summer and most parents had already made plans for the 1988-1989 school year. At this time, there are approximately 50 percent nonhandicapped and 50 percent handicapped but the goal is to admit even a greater percentage of nonhandicapped.

Another was to work out responsibilities for each member of the interdisciplinary team so that the needs of each child can be met. Difficulties in training and orientation of staff necessitated team meetings for

clarification of roles, setting goals and coping with issues and problems.

The Spectrum program provides an educational program which identifies the strengths and needs of each child and his family. The program is committed to providing each child with a developmentally appropriate curriculum and children and there is a strong belief that families can learn from each other. Family involvement is an important component of the program and to insure that staff members grow professionally in their ability to help children and family members profit from the integrated settings, inservice training is given high priority. There is a staff member responsible for seeing that family involvement receives the attention deemed necessary.

In each of the 8 classrooms there are two co-teachers, one teacher is trained in early education of the handicapped and one in regular education of young children. There is at least one paraprofessional in each classroom. The class size is no more than 18 children with at least half being nonhandicapped. Each class meets for 2 1/4 hours daily, 5 days a week.

All children are assessed by the teachers and aides using an on going assessment instrument (CAPP) to determine the strengths and weaknesses of each child. Planned activities are linked with the results of the assessment. There are opportunities for the children to take the responsibility for selecting activities they are interested in pursuing. Language is stressed throughout the day as is affective development and motor development. Children are encouraged to think at a higher level, to become more self directed and creative. Evaluation is built into the program and definitive plans are made for transition to the next level. The desire to provide a continuum of services for all children led the staff to retain the strengths of the JEEPH and of the ALPHA programs. There has been a real effort to have a balance between a more formal teacher directed and a more informal child initiated approach.

SMALL COMPONENTS OF THE SPECTRUM PROGRAM

There are three levels of the Spectrum Program; Spectrum I, Spectrum II, and Spectrum III. These levels are discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

There is room available for 56 children in the 8 Spectrum I classrooms. An individualized assessment profile is development for each child based on skills at and during the initial weeks of school using the on-going assessment instrument (CAPP). The at-risk and nonhandciapped children have student progress plans and the handicapped, IEP's. In addition to this number, 40 children who do not need a classroom program are served by an itinerant speech and language therapist.

Spectrum II provides three levels of services for at risk children. Spectrum II-C offers center-based services for 40 at risk children and their families. Spectrum II-H, through a child development specialist, serves approximately 25 children and their families in the home. Spectrum II-M, the least intensive service, monitors the progress of 80 children who are at risk for academic failure. Every 6 months, these children are rescreened.

Spectrum III are those children who demonstrate no special educational needs. Up to 48 children who serve as models to children enrolled in the center based program can be enrolled in the program. They also receive a developmentally appropriate program. They serve as models for handicapped and

at risk children.

Identification

County-wide group screenings are conducted twice yearly in each of the 13 districts using the DIAL-R. Individual screenings are conducted throughout the year. A screening coordinator, volunteers, occupational therapist, speech/language therapist, participate in the screening. Children who fail the screening are seen by a transdisciplinary team who determines program eligibility. Nonhandicapped children are recruited from the surrounding community; they participate in a 45 minute group screening developed by program staff.

Funding of the Program

While the three Spectrum programs are integrated, the financial backing of each comes from different resources. Spectrum I, the handicapped component of the program is funded primarily thorugh state reimbursement for special education with some local resources and the University of Illinois. Spectrum II, the at risk component of the program is largely funded through regular early childhood at the state level with minimal funding coming from the local districts and the University of Illinois. Spectrum III, the nonhandicapped component is financed by parent fees with minimal funding from the University of Illinois. Separate financial records must be kept on each of the three components of the program.

Transition

An important part of the program is to help each child make a smooth transition to the next level. Records are sent to the receiving teacher and case conferences are held at the beginning of the school year. The receiving teacher is encouraged to call Spectrum staff if they can be of help in providing additional information that will help the child make a good adjustment to his new placement.

Program Evaluation

Several procedures will be followed to determine Child Progress in the center-based instructional component and Family Progress. The follow up steps will be taken to determine child progress in the center-based instructional component:

(1) Pre-post child assessment data will be gathered on the Receptive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test, Expressive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test, and the California Preschool Social Competency Scale for each child in spectrum I and II-C. Child growth in adaptive behavior and interpersonal social competence as measured by the California will be examined by using a within-groups t-test. Child growth in language development will be examined using a proportional change index. The proportional change index is a statistical tool to examine child gains relative to their rate of development at the outset of the program. A proportional change index of 1.0 indicates that the child's rate of development continued as expected based on his/her initial rate of development. Scores less than 1.0 indicate a slower rate of growth, and scores greater than 1.0 indicate a faster rate of growth. To determine if there is a significant change in the rate of development, the obtained proportional change in the rate of development, the obtained proportional change indices will be compared to a predicted population mean of 1.0 using a t-test for dependent samples.

(2) Progress of children in Spectrum II-C on the CAPP will be noted. Also, the percentage of goals obtained by children on the Student Progoress Plan (SPP) will be reported.

(3) The child development specialist will rate the progress of each child in Spectrum II-H using a developmental checklist.

(4) Parents in Spectrum II-C and II-H will be asked to rate their child's progress, at mid-term and at year end, on the developmental areas contained on the CAPP. This information will be used as a measure of parent satisfaction with the program.

The following steps will be taken to examine the impact on families of the parent component:

(1) At the end of the year, parents will complete a survey in which they rate the usefulness of the various parent activities. These ratings will be based on a 3-point scale with the following anchors: 1 (waste of time), 2 (okay), 3 (very useful). A one-sample t-test will be used to compare actual ratings with a predicted population mean of 2. This analysis will help determine if parents feel that their participation was significantly better than just average or okay. Parents will also be asked to respond to open-ended questions regarding their impression of the program and how well it met their child's needs.

(2) At the end of each parent workshop, parents will rate the effectiveness of the workshop presentation and the degree to which the workshop information and materials met their individual neneeds. Ratings are based on a 5-point scale with the following anchor points: 1 (poor), 3 (average), and 5 (superior). A one-sample t-test will be used to compare actual ratings with a predicted population mean of 3. Given that a rating of 3 represents an average rating, this analysis will help determine if parents perceive workshop presentations and content to be significantly above average. Parents will also be asked to respond to open-ended questions regarding the knowledge/skills gained from attending.

Follow up of Spectrum Graduates

It is the plan to follow-up on all Spectrum students in subsequent years. The worth of the Spectrum program can best be judged not only on the immediate short term functioning of the children but also on long term functioning.

References

Biklen, Douglas P. (January 1985). Mainstreaming: From Compliance to Quality. Journal of Learning Disabilities. 18, 58-61.

McLean, M., & Odom, S. (1988). Least Restrictive Environment and Social Integration. Division for Early Childhood White Paper.

Weiner, R., & Koppelman, J. (1987). From birth to 5: Serving the youngest handicapped children. Alexandria, VA: Education Research Group.

Phyllis Kelly, Ed.D.
Education Program Specialist
Kansas State Dept. of Education
Special Education Section
120 East 10th
Topeka, KS 66612

A MODEL SYSTEM FOR STATE EDUCATION AGENCY APPROVAL FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION PARAPROFESSIONALS: IMPLICATIONS FOR RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION

This particular session will last for approximately 50 minutes with one presenter from the Kansas State Department of Education, Special Education Section. The presentation will be divided into approximately seven parts with time throughout the presentation for questions. There will be a packet of materials distributed describing the statewide system and subsequent training materials relevant to the system.

The first part of the presentation will focus on an overview of the distributed materials and resources. It is hoped that this part of the session will introduce to the audience the statewide system for approval of special education paraprofessionals and accompanying training programs. The packet of materials will include an 11-page bibliography of materials and media which are available on loan from the Kansas State Department of Education for training.

The second part of the presentation will focus on the rationale behind a State Education Agency process for approval of special education paraprofessionals. The legal and ethical reasons for initiating and implementing such a system will be described. This is a very important section of the session as it should set the foundation and background for why such a system is important and why one should be put into place in each of the states.

The third part of the presentation will focus on the procedures to put such a system into place. The experiences over the past 14 years in the state of Kansas have produced one of the best known models for a statewide training effort for special education paraprofessionals. A great deal of knowledge has been gleaned in the area of advocating for and task analyzing the procedures that are necessary to implement such a system. This particular part of the session would list those procedures.

The next part of the session will deal with the actual system itself. The components of the permit system, the actual documents that are used for approval of the paraprofessionals, and the requirements will be discussed. Following the presentation of the actual system will be the monitoring aspects of the system. How does the SEA monitor the system in terms of forms and reports? What are the procedures that are used for internal and external implementation of the system? In terms of cost and cost-effectiveness, how does the system function? These types of questions will hopefully be answered during this segment of the presentation.

The next part of the presentation will focus on the "pros" and the "cons" of such a system and the implications for rural special education. What is an ideal system for program approval for special education parsprofessionals? What are the advantages of having such a system and what are the disadvantages of having a centralized coordinated approach for paraprofessional approval at the state level?

The last portion of the presentation will focus on the efforts of statewide coordination of training for special education paraprofessionals. The Kansas Facilitator Training Model has been in existence for the past 12 years. It has gone through various stages of development and refinement. In the time that is remaining, as much as possible will be covered on the training aspects which include a unique approach of combining inservice and preservice training at the community college level. The approved core curriculum and course competencies will be discussed and will be available as a handout on request.

In summary, the purpose of this particular session is to give an overview of a model system for state approval of special education paraprofessionals. Extensive handouts will accompany the presentation for future reference. The procedures to be followed, the components of the Kansas system, and implications of approving paraprofessionals for rural areas will be discussed with an emphasis on the inservice-preservice requirements for training.

PARAPROFESSIONALS--WHAT ARE THEIR ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES IN KANSAS?

Who Is A Special Education Instructional Paraprofessional?

The term "paraprofessional" refers to a person who assists the professional staff. As a team member, they work alongside of and under the direction of a professional, helping to provide a higher quality educational program for their students than would be possible without their assistance.

How Many Paraprofessionals Do We Have In Special Education In Kansas?

As of the beginning of September, 1988, we have over 3,000 paraprofessionals who work in many different types of programs with students with handicaps. The paraprofessionals work in programs with gifted students, as well as in related services, interrelated classrooms, and all of the categorical areas that we have in the state of Kansas.

What Does A Paraprofessional Do?

Paraprofessionals are playing key roles in assisting teachers or adult service providers in educational and support programs. Paraprofessionals are of help to teachers in many areas. They may assist in instruction under the supervision of the teacher, assist with audiovisual equipment, classroom management, perform clerical duties, help with recess supervision, and work in community settings with students. Those are only a few of the many tasks that a paraprofessional may be called upon to do depending on in the individual classroom requirements. Above all, paraprofessionals provide students with more individual attention and learning opportunities and, by doing so, help improve the overall education program.

Where Does a Paraprofessional Work?

Paraprofessionals work in programs throughout the state of Kansas in urban settings and in rural areas. They work in public and private schools, in institutional settings, in sheltered workshops, in group homes, and in private homes. Paraprofessionals are found in programs serving preschool children and those serving adults. They work in homebase programs, in classrooms for bilingual students, and classrooms for the severely multiply handicapped. Special education paraprofessionals work in just about every type of setting which serves individuals who have some sort of handicapping condition.

What Kind of Training is Required?

Kansas paraprofessionals receive inservice training which is planned by their facilitator and their local education agency and from the Kansas State Department of Education, Special Education Section, through the Kansas Facilitator Training Model. In addition, some of the state's community colleges have developed programs or special courses for training special education paraprofessionals. Paraprofessionals in special education receive a Permit--Level 1, 2, or 3--depending on the number of years of experience as a paraprofessional and the number of inservice and/or college hours of class work that they have taken.

For further information or questions about paraprofessionals please contact Phyllis Kelly or Fran Lee at the Kansas State Department of Education, Special Education Section, 120 East 10th, Topeka, Kansas 66612, (913) 296-3867.

Maxine Wallender Kilcrease
Western Oregon State College
Ed 110
345 N. Monmouth Ave.
Monmouth, Oregon 97361

"Ready, Set, Go!"
A Model Community Resource Plan for Rural Schools

Rural special educators face many challenges on the job. Those challenges include lack of funds for materials, lack of support personnel, students with every handicapping condition (especially challenging are the low-incidence students) and a lack of time and energy to meet these challenges.

As a response to this need, a community resource plan was developed in 1983 for Rosedale Elementary School, a small rural school, south of Salem, Oregon. Over a period of three years the plan was refined.

The resource plan included: Needs Assessments, Grant Writing, Training Cross-Age and Peer Tutors, Paraprofessionals and Volunteers, Implementation and Evaluation. The resource plan was very effective. Elements of the plan have been implemented in 37 elementary schools in the area. The purpose of this presentation is to share the essential elements of the plan so that it may be successfully implemented in other rural schools around the country.

Especially unique to the plan is the rural focus. The people who live in rural areas are like no others. In order to have an understanding of how to work with rural folks, one has to have what the fur trapper, Joe Meek, called "a knowin' beyond the book larnin' ". Because this is true, special educators will find this plan has been carefully developed with community culture and needs as the main focus. It was designed by a rural special educator and its success in rural areas is documented.

The elements of the Community Resource Plan are divided under three headings: The Model Resource Teacher, The Model Resource Room, Training Cross Age and Peer Tutors, Paraprofessionals, and Volunteers and finally, Evaluation.

"Ready!": The Model Rural Special Education Teacher

Before a rural special education teacher develops a community resource plan, it is essential for a self-evaluation to be done. Community resource plans are effective, in part, because the rural special education teacher has taken a good look at whether or not s/he is ready for community involvement. How is this determined? One can examine a model for a quality special education teacher and within that model characterize the do's and don'ts for being successful. Second, one can complete a survey which asks some questions about issues related to other personnel in the classroom which is part of the community resource plan. Completion of these two exercises enable the rural special educator to see themselves more clearly, to be aware of strengths and weakness, and better equipped to make decisions.

As a framework for discussion, Frank Hewitt's (1980) list of competencies will be used. The list of competencies is a result of research done by the staff at the Neuropsychiatric School at the University of California, Los Angeles. The competencies are listed in order of importance from the most basic level to the highest level.

First, the teacher must possess objectivity. This means that the teacher will be knowledgeable in all areas of the field. The teacher must be secure in self, not needing the love of all or seeking vicarious satisfaction through the students The insecurity of teachers puts a burden on students. It makes them prey to manipulators. It destroys consistency. It causes children to be confused and unable to respond consistently because the teacher's mood must be checked first. In regard to staff relations, it causes many problems in facilitating the educational process for students. Part of the objectivity issue is clarity. Repeatedly, the research documents the importance of clarity in teacher differential behavior. The teacher can be high structure, high relationship, or low

structure, high relationship in teaching and leadership styles. The nonverbal behaviors may be negative or positive. The key is that students are aware of expectations and the corresponding consequences (Woolfolk & Brooks, 1985; Vera, Fortune, & Hudson, 1985). When expectations become fuzzy or unpredictable, the students' behavior and academic performance suffer.

The second competency is flexibility. Flexibility is defined as making transitions and changes freely, as necessary. A person who is secure will not have difficulty being flexible. Flexibility applies to the reaction to behavior and situations as well as making changes. The teacher must be able to control reactions to behavior expecially, and that's not easy. Self-control modeled to a student shows a student that such self-control is possible for them too. Alexis and Mitman (1985) documented that teachers who were flexible had more accurate perceptions of lower achieving students and showed more concern for them. Flexibility is also important to respond to changes needed in the classroom environment and instructional programs when they do not work. Rigidity can easily be identified in programs because characteristic patterns for non-compliant behavior exist, little or no academic progress is being made by the group, or no one is being referred to the special education program. Finally, flexibility is important in relationship to staff members, parents and members of the community. Rural special education teachers are in building to provide a service and to responsive to changing needs. Not a lot of research is available in this area yet, but directors of special education and principals freely tell, if asked, how quickly lack of flexibility can ruin a program.

The third competency is structure. Structure is defined as possessing the skill to provide enviornmental and situational structure to the degree decessary at appropriate times to meet needs. This means a solid behavior management system is needed. The behavior management system must include several components to be effective. Wayson and Lasley (1984) recommend a building-wide policy. A review of programs and data document the inclusion of the following: (1) creating a student belongingness and responsibility; (2) pursuing superordinate school goals; (3) creating symbols of identity and excellence; (3) fostering leadership to sustain positive school values; and (5) creating clear formal and

informal rules. Added to these elements are consistency, cooperation and continued communication. A well-developed structure povides the secure environment for educational progress.

The four competency is resourcefulness. Resourcefulness is defined as the ability to create instructional materials out of nothing and to find appropriate instructional materials to meet every need. Instruction is based on a multisensory approach and is tied to a reality, meaning base.

The fifth competency is social reinforcement. Social reinforcement is defined as appropriate reinforcement to meet individual needs. The teacher needs to dtermine where a student is on the continuum of behavior and to identify where the locus of control is- external to internal.

The sixth competency is curriculum expertise. Curriculum expertise is defined as knowing the curriculum and the curriculum materials. It is the tailpiece of assessment, diagnosis, and prescription.

Hewitt's seventh and final competency is intellectual model. The teacher as an intellectual model is an example of successful interpersonal relationships, leadership, perhaps even study skills and others. Everyone knows that modeling is the most powerful teaching tool there is. It is the hardest part of teaching because there is so much responsiblity but it exists with tremendous potential to effect change.

Hewitt's competencies are impressive. However, one cannot help adding a few points to his list. First, teachers should regularly evaluate themselves and their programs. Second, continuing education is very important. Finally, skills in assessment and diagnosis are vital to the success of any rural special education teacher.

Using this framework, the teacher evaluates their skill level. If the teacher decides that most of the competencies are met, then it is appropriate to begin asking some questions about the teacher in relationship to having members of the community, paraprofessionals, volunteers, and parents serve the needs of students in the resource room.

The questions are adapted from A Guide to Human Resources in Special Education (Fimian, Fafard & Howell, 1984) and are as follows:

1. Do I have a good relationship with the staff, parents, and members of the community?

2. Can I work cooperatively with a resource worker?

3. Will another person in the classroom reduce, or increase behavior problems?

4. Will I feel threatened by another person in the classroom?

5. Can I be flexible?

6. Am I, or can I be, sensitive to the worker's contribution to the class?

7. Can I learn to take the extra time and give the extra input to make the worker's experience a success?

8. How do I feel about the changes that will inevitably be introduced into my classroom as a result of the worker's presence?

9. Do I have staff support and input?

10. Can I delegate responsibility?

11. Can I handle the evaluation?

By answering the questions honestly, one can evaluate one's readiness for involvment of others in the resource room program. The next phase of the assessment process is an evaluation of the resource room program.

"Set!": The Rural Special Education Resource Room Program

The next element for evaluation is the resource room program. Until one can firmly establish the following basic components for an effectively functioning resource room program, one probably does not want to implement a community resource plan. The components include: a building philosophy, the resource room model, the instructional skills continuum, the school-wide and classroom discipline policies, communication, management issues, and the needs assessment.

First, it is very important to decide as a building staff what the philosophy of the school will be. Issues such as the goals and objectives as they relate to staff, students, parents and community must be explored. This effort is important because it encourages collaboration and cooperation among all staff members and enables everyone in the building to work toward the same goal and focus in unity and harmony. Often this is done by the principal in the building.

Second, it is very important as an individual teacher to decide what the resource room program will look like. What kind of students will you serve? Will gray-area students as well as those who are talented and gifted and handicapped be welcome? The vision and expectation of the program should be very clear so that the boundaries of what can be accomplished effectively are drawn. Teachers often attempt to do way too much or to do things way beyond what the hours in a day allow. This dilutes program effectiveness.

Third, every teacher must know the instructional skills continuum for the district and the district curriculum.

Fourth, a school-wide discipline and classroom discipline policy should be in place and functioning smoothly and effectively.

Fifth, management of time, personnel, material, equipment and facilities must be under control. The teacher needs to have a schedule board so that time is carefully planned and so that other staff members are aware of how time is allocated. If an instructional assistant is already a part of the resource staff the relationship should be harmonious.

There should be an adequate range of materials and resources. Grant writing is a vital part of the resource teacher's job. There should be a section of materials exclusively for resource room use and another section for teachers to check out and use with special needs students in the regular classroom or for professional development. Next, the teacher will be comfortable with the room arrangement and space. Furthermore, the teacher will have paperwork under control. The teacher will effectively manage filling out all federal, state and local paperwork in a timely manner. Daily data, home communication cards, and staff communication cards and checklists are consistently filled out. Equipment is in good condition and the teacher knows how everything works. These are the nuts and bolts of the program.

Finally, the teacher must complete an assessment of the needs of the program. The needs assessment must be divided into two parts needs of students for instruction and clerical tasks. The teacher needs to set up time wheels for how time is presently being spent. How many hours a week are spent in direct instruction, attending meetings, consultant services, testing and diagnostic services, staff development, and other services? How many hours a week are spent in filling out forms, collecting data, making bulletin boards, correcting papers, planning lessons, and other clerical tasks? Next, the teacher needs to compare this to two figures: the number of hours the teacher should actually be working and the unmet needs which still exist. By making these comparisons the teacher can determine how many hours per week are still needed for clerical and instructional tasks. These figures will help the teacher solicit the kind of helpers needed in order to implement the community resource plan.

By completing the evaluation of the individual and the program, the teacher now has a very good idea of the strengths and weaknesses of the program and whether or not the teacher and the program are ready for the development and implementation of a community resource plan.

"Go!": Training of Volunteers, Paraprofessionals, Cross-Age and Peer Tutors

After the completion of the needs assessment, it becomes necessary for the teacher to prioritize the levels of service which will be offered in the program. Some areas of consideration include direct instruction, testing, meetings, consultant services, staff development, and team building. Once the priorities have been determined, the development of the plan begins. The plan includes recruitment, orientation, selection, placement, training, and evaluation.

The recruitment process includes meeting with parents, members of the community and staff. A steering committee helps the resource teacher decide on the priority of the services needed based on each of their unique perspectives. After the needs have been identified, the members of the steering committee begin recruitment efforts. These include contacting the editor of the local newspaper, the seniors of the community, members of the parent club, and anyone else that might be interested in helping. The teacher contacts the parent of every child who receives services of any kind to come and observe in the resource room. This gives the parent the chance to observe the program, their child in action, and great needs for extra help in the resource room. The resource teacher gives each individual parent an opportunity to offer services in some way to help provide support for the resource room.

The next phase of the plan is to invite those people interested to come to an orientation session. This session is designed to make them aware of the needs of the children they might be working with, the kind of help that is needed, some ethical and professional standards, hands-on time with materials, discussion of data collection and time for discussion and questions and answers. An explanation of clerical versus instructional support is given. At this time interest forms are offered and people make application to participate in the training program. The teacher sets up a time to personally interview each person who has completed the form.

The steering committee then convenes again in order to select volunteers. The criterion for the selection of volunteer includes considerations such as the kind of help needed, the skills of the volunteer, the individual student, the amount of time and location of time to be committed, the level of commitment and the interpersonal skills of the volunteer. No volunteer is ever turned away. Sometimes, however, it does take time to come up with a good match between the volunteer and the tasks.

A tentative placement for the volunteer is made. The volunteer has the opportunity to observe the actual situation in which they will volunteer.

Next, the training takes place. Elements of the training session include the "Inside the Puzzle Child Workshop" (Instructor, February, 1984), the school and classroom philosophy, the school-wide and classroom discipline policies, student expectations, the role of the volunteer, and training in instruction using the model of : Model, Role Play, Performance Feedback, Reinforcement, and Transfer of Training.

Each volunteer is carefully supported, appreciated and monitored by the teacher. The volunteer and teacher informally evaluate each other. The staff members in the building and the parents regularly evaluate the effectiveness of the resource room program. When this is in place and functioning effectively cross-age and peer tutor programs may be added on.

The use of cross-age and peer tutors is very effective when certain criteria are implemented. The criteria for selection include: (1) 95% attendance, (2) 100% of the goals for academic success and behavior at their level of expected functioning in the classroom, and (3) an essay of at least one page or three minutes on cassette saying why they want to be a "Friendly Helper", and (4) a willingness to give up the time to tutor and to be a member of the "Friendly Helpers." Members of the multi-disciplinary team convene and select tutors. After the tutors are selected, they fill out a survey telling what subject areas they are comfortable tutoring in, what age level they are interested in, what sex, or whether they only want to do clerical work.

The tutors are then trained using a format very similar to the other volunteers. In addition, they meet on an once a week basis with the resource teacher or counselor to develop the skills of being a good tutor, especially appropriate way to help. This also gives them a chance to de-brief, to talk about problems and to get any help they might need. This serves as a continuing evaluative vehicle also.

Last, but certainly not least, it is important to let these volunteers know that they have made a difference. There are dozens of ways of doing this. It is also important to collect data on the numbers of volunteers, the number of hours they volunteer and the successes. These statistics are very helpful in evaluation, grant writing and report writing. After the institution of this program, the number of referrals to the multi-disciplinary team dropped by seventy five percent as did the number of students eligible for special education services. Over a four year period there was an average of forty hours per week of volunteer time spent in the resource room. The program expanded school wide and has been replicated in schools all over the West Coast.

Design and Supervision of Field-Based Practicum Experiences in Rural Communities

Dr. Dennis R. Knapczyk
(Indiana University)

To be published in: Proceedings of the American Council on Rural Special Education.

Dr. Dennis R. Knapczyk
Department of Special Education
Smith Research Center 170
Indiana University
Bloomington, Indiana 47401

Design and Supervision of Field-Based Practicum Experiences in Rural Training Sites

INTRODUCTION

Designing a coherent set of experiences through which trainees develop competencies related to job performance is a primary goal of teacher training programs. Although there are many ways to achieve this goal, all effective models of training are characterized by a high degree of correspondence between the academic (information provision) and practicum (application) components. That is, once trainees have mastered the basic principles that form the content of training, they should participate in field experiences where they learn to apply the principles to the demands of their teaching positions and learn to adapt them to the conditions of their work environment (Marrs, 1984; Pagney, 1983). Thus, during their field experiences, trainees must practice skills under controlled conditions, in a logical order, with adequate feedback about their performance, and to a mastery level (Treadway, 1984). Closely coordinated academic and field components can serve many functions that enhance the quality of training. Some of these functions include: (1) facilitate structuring a "field referenced" approach to training; (2) permit deliberate sequencing of training activities; (3) foster interdependence and continuity among training experiences; and (4) enhance precision of trainee feedback, program monitoring, and evaluation.

Creating practicum experiences that help to accomplish the outcomes listed above is particularly important in training programs for special educators who teach in rural communities (Helge, 1984). Such factors as the diversity of roles assigned to special class teachers, separation of trainers and trainees, and diffusion of trainees across the program catchment area increase the importance of providing highly organized practicum experiences (O'Connor & Rotatori, 1987; Pelton, 1983). To support field experience activities, teacher training programs should also devise a system of communication with trainees that can (1) supply information about a wide range of trainee performance measures, (2) offer an effective way of determining the degree to which trainees display program competencies in their teaching assignments, (3) provide immediate feedback and remedial training options to trainees, and (4) permit comprehensive formative and

summative evaluation of training competencies and program components. High quality supervision of practicum experiences requires an effective means of establishing two-way communication links between trainers and training sites (Treadway, 1984).

This paper presents a guide for developing and supervising field-based practicum activities to support training of special educators who are teaching in rural communities. Particular attention is given to organizing and overseeing practicum experiences that prepare teachers in practices related to integration into regular education programs of students who exhibit mild learning and behavior problems (i.e., students with mild mental retardation and learning disabilities and other "at risk" learners). The paper uses the graduate teacher training program in special education at Indiana University to show how high quality practicum experiences can be offered to trainees teaching in rural communities.

INDIANA UNIVERSITY'S GRADUATE TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM

The Department of Special Education at Indiana University in Bloomington provides graduate level training to persons seeking endorsements to teach in public school special education programs. Training options are available for teachers who have completed requirements for elementary, secondary, or all-grade special education teaching licenses. The Department of Special Education offers coursework leading to endorsements in learning disabilities, mild mental retardation, and behavior disorders. The training program views the role of special educators as one of developing, implementing, and evaluating instructional programs that (1) facilitate movement into regular education settings of students receiving special services, and (2) providing assistance to students and teachers in regular education settings so that students succeed and are retained in those settings. The training program is oriented toward the position that special education services should be transitory in nature and special educators should act as program managers, consultants, and change agents rather than as traditional classroom teachers. Trainees participating in the program typically are full time practicing regular or special class teachers who work in rural communities located throughout southern Indiana and attend coursework as part-time students. They complete a one-semester practicum course (3 credit hours) as part of their endorsement requirements; enroll in the course after completing at least nine credits in their major area (a survey course and two methods courses); and perform practicum activities in their assigned classrooms and school buildings.

DEVISING FIELD EXPERIENCES

Figure 1 presents the sequence of activities for devising field experiences to support a teacher training program. This

---

Insert figure 1 about here

---

section describes each step in the sequence and provides examples of how the steps are carried out in the context of the graduate training program at Indiana University.

A. Establish aim of training program.

The aim of the program specifies what the program expects to accomplish as a result of providing training experiences to its students. That is, the statement of aim should indicate the role(s) that graduates will be prepared to assume after they have completed the program.

AIM OF INDIANA UNIVERSITY'S PROGRAM: To prepare teachers who can develop instructional programs through which students systematically progress from reliance on special education services to self-reliance and successful performance in regular education settings.

B. Specify goals of training program.

The goals of the training program should be consistent with its aim. The goals should specify in some detail the major responsibilities that graduates will be able to carry out upon completion of their training.

GOALS OF INDIANA UNIVERSITY'S PROGRAM:

1. Graduates will be able to evaluate and, where necessary, to improve the quality of instruction delivered to students in special education settings.

2. Graduates will be able to develop and implement programs of instruction through which students currently receiving special education services are taught to successfully participate in regular education settings.

3. Graduates will be able to monitor and improve the performance of students mainstreamed into regular education settings so that students retain their placements in them.

C. List competencies associated with training goals.

The competencies specify the major areas of performance required of trainees to achieve the goals of the program. They serve as outcome statements for the content areas that will be the focus of training activities. That is, competencies indicate

the skill areas and teaching practices that the training program will address. They guide identification and organization of information and practicum components of the program.

In terms of sequencing experiences that comprise the training program, information components will usually precede practicum components. That is, trainees will be expected to complete a predetermined set of academic coursework before enrolling in their practicum. However, with regard to program development, it is best to specify the teaching skills and practices that trainees are to display in the field either before or at the same time as specifying course content. That is, a primary function of the information component of a program is to give trainees an opportunity to master prerequisite and lead-up skills associated with the teaching practices they will display in their practicum. Without first ascertaining the practices that are the focus of training, it will not be possible to develop a complete description of the prerequisite and lead-up skills that pertain to the practices.

COMPETENCIES OF INDIANA UNIVERSITY'S PROGRAM: The graduate program at Indiana University has used a curriculum-based instructional model to select program competencies. A curriculum-based approach is one in which assessment and teaching strategies are derived from the curriculum of classrooms that constitute least restrictive settings for students, i.e., regular education settings (Blankenship & Lilly, 1981; Lovitt & Hansen, 1976; Tucker, 1985). Curriculum-based approaches proceed from the view that a primary function of special education services for students with mild learning and behavior problems is to "raise student performance to the same level of curricular skill as students in regular classes" (Howell & Morehead, 1987). For purposes of identifying training competencies, the term "curriculum" was used to denote the wide range of skills students must exhibit to meet the expectations of regular education settings. Included as skill areas for instruction are: (1) academic achievement and subject matter skills; (2) skills associated with participation in instructional activities; (3) organizational strategies and study habits; (4) social skills; and (5) skills associated with self-management and motivation. Figure 2 lists the competencies for preparing teachers to use a curriculum-based instructional approach.

Insert Figure 2 about here

D. Devise field-based projects.

The activities that trainees engage in in their practicum should be consistent with program competencies. That is, assigned

activities should give trainees opportunities to apply the concepts and principles associated with program competencies and learn to adapt them to fit the characteristics of their students. The field experiences should also promote synthesis of concepts and principles into teaching practices that are incorporated into the trainee's teaching repertoire. Therefore, the activities should be comprehensive enough to allow trainees to demonstrate mastery of skills related to individual competencies and foster integration of related competency areas into practices that are pertinent to their teaching positions. One way of achieving these effects is to devise field-based projects in which trainees use a problem-solving approach to identify circumstances in their programs that need attention and to generate and evaluate solutions or interventions that address the problem areas. In this manner trainees will have an opportunity to both practice skills related to program competencies and improve the overall quality of their instructional assignments.

FIELD EXPERIENCE PROJECTS IN INDIANA UNIVERSITY'S PROGRAM:
Trainees are required to complete two projects in their practicum:

Project 1. Trainees prepare an intervention plan that assists the entry and retention of students in regular education settings. Completing the project requires: (1) identifying requirements for entry and retention in regular education in selected areas or grade levels, (2) developing assessment procedures for requirement areas, (3) assessing the performance of specific students, and (4) preparing an intervention plan that will assist students in meeting requirements.

Project 2. Trainees devise, implement, and evaluate an intervention program that improves the performance of students in one of the following skill areas:

a. Academic achievement and subject matter skills
b. Skills related to participation in instructional activities
c. Organizational strategies d study habits
d. Social skills
e. Skills related to self-management and motivation

Completing the project requires: (1) selecting a subset of skills pertinent to students in the program; (2) analy-ing the skills into subskills, lead-up skills, and prerequisites; (3) assessing performance of specific students; (4) devising, implementing, and evaluating an intervention that promotes acquisition, maintenance, and generalization of skills.

E. Prepare training materials to guide field experiences.
Training materials that support the practicum should be

detailed and comprehensive enough to permit trainees to progress through activities with a minimum of direction or need for clarification. The materials should (1) communicate the expectations and outcomes for practicum experiences or projects, (2) facilitate organization and performance of requisite activities, and (3) promote communication between trainees and supervisors for purposes of feedback, additional training, and evaluation. One way of achieving these effects is to prepare materials that include the following:

1. Case study or scenario that gives examples of problems or situations that trainees are likely to encounter in their teaching positions. This section can provide background information for projects, give a context or referent for activities, and describe practicum outcomes.

2. List of guidelines for projects or activities that establishes the expectations for performance, describes the scope of activities, and specifies performance standards and evaluation criteria.

3. Task analysis that outlines a sequence of steps for project completion. The analysis can operationalize training goals in terms of field-related activities, show how program competencies are integrated into teaching practices, and guide trainee performance of projects.

4. List of trainee outputs for practicum activities that assists trainees in organizing and pacing their performance and specifies products required for project and course completion. Trainee outputs can provide the context for performance feedback, additional training, and formative evaluation.

5. List of supervisor outputs that outlines the responsibilities of practicum supervisors. The list of outputs can facilitate monitoring and coordination of field training activities. This list can also help assure that trainees will receive feedback and assistance as it is needed.

If training materials include the information listed above, they can serve as both a contract between trainees and trainers regarding expectations for fulfilling course requirements and a means for establishing and maintaining lines of communication that ensures high quality supervision and monitoring of field activities.

TRAINING MATERIALS USED IN INDIANA UNIVERSITY'S PROGRAM: Before they begin their field experience, trainees are given a set of materials for each of the projects they select. These materials include the information described above. For example, the scenario for Project 1 describes concerns a group of regular class teachers have regarding procedures

for recommending special class students for placement in regular classes. Their concerns are presented to the building principal. The principal, in turn, asks the special (or regular) class teacher (i.e., the practicum student) to devise and field test a more effective way of deciding which students exhibit the skills needed to enter and be retained in regular education settings, and preparing instructional program plans that assist the students in identified deficiency areas.

The guidelines for this project provide information about (1) referents used for identifying skills required for entry and retention; (2) sample size of the students used in the project; (3) settings in which activities take place; (4) number and type of school personnel who serve as resources for activities; (5) amount of detail involved in completing activities; and (6) comprehensiveness of plans, materials, reports, and other products to be completed as part of the project.

Table 1 provides an example of a task analysis that specifies steps for the first major activity in Project 1. Table 1 also lists trainee and supervisor outputs for the steps.

Insert Table 1 about here

F. Devise strategies for supervision of field experiences.

Procedures for supervising field experiences should be flexible enough to accommodate differences among the activities and projects that trainees select. For example, even though trainees may choose the same projects for their practicum, differences in the characteristics of their students and schools and diversity in their preferences and expertise can result in significant variations in the field activities they perform. In addition, methods of communication between trainers and trainees should be sufficiently broad to handle the various forms of information that need to be transmitted and do so without the information being delayed or hampered by distances between training and field sites. Table 2 provides a listing of several methods for communicating information about practicum experiences. Table 2 also describes some advantages and limitations of each method.

Insert Table 2 about here

STRATEGIES FOR SUPERVISION USED IN INDIANA UNIVERSITY'S PROGRAM:

Before they enroll in their practicum, trainees are given a

Table 1. Task analysis of first steps for Project 1 and lists of trainee and supervisor outputs.

STEPS IN PROJECT COMPLETION	TRAINEE OUTPUTS	SUPERVISOR OUTPUTS
1. Develop procedures for determining requirements for participation in regular education programs		
1.1 Select grade and content areas for which requirements will be determined	1a. Indicate grade and content areas on which the project will focus	1a. Approve preliminary plan to obtain information
1.2 Select and contact personnel who will supply information about requirements	1b. Provide list of personnel who will supply information about requirements	1b. Approve preliminary plan to obtain information
1.3 Decide upon the types of information needed to determine requirements	1c. Outline the types of information that will be solicited	1c. Review outline of information to be solicited and suggest revisions, if needed
1.4 Develop procedures for obtaining information about requirements		
1.5 Devise recording devices, surveys, interview questions, and observation forms for obtaining information	1d. Supply samples of survey documents, questionnaires, interview forms used for obtaining information	1d. Examine survey documents, interview forms, questionnaires, etc. and assist in revisions, if needed
1.6 Prepare a timeline for distributing forms, scheduling interviews. making observations, and examining materials that are part of information gathering plan	1e. Provide timeline for implementation of procedures	1e. Give confirmation of timeline for obtaining information

Table 2. Methods of communication for practicum supervision and their advantages and limitatations.

METHODS	ADVANTAGES/LIMITATIONS
Field site visitations	Allows trainees to give a general overview of student and program characteristics Allows trainees to demonstrate skills or products in natural settings and receive feedback or remedial training from supervisor Limited by frequency of use
Meetings/conferences	Allows trainees to obtain clarification of assigned activities Permits detailed discussion of steps to project completion Allows comprehensive feedback about performance and products Limited by frequency of use
Mail	Allows trainees to submit progress reports or examples products and activities Provides opportunities for detailed feedback and evaluation of performance Limited by time delay and usefulness as a remedial training option

Table 2. Continued

Fax/ Electronic mail	Same advantages of mail service Limited by accessibility to trainees
Phone calls/ Teleconferencing	Permits clarification of guidelines and specific activities Allows for generalized feedback and monitoring Provides a useful adjunct to mailed documents Permits sharing of information and "brain storming" among groups of trainees working on common projects Limited by amount and type of information that can be communicated and work schedules of trainer and trainee
PC Audio-graphic scanners	Permits simultaneous transmission of text, documents, and graphic information in "real" time Allows immediate feedback and remedial training Combines advantages of phone and mail without time delay Limited by accessibility to trainers and trainees. Best placed in regional sites and networked to trainees in-class computers

complete set of training materials for review. They are asked to select projects and begin planning activities in relation to areas or conditions in their instructional programs that need closer attention. During the first week of classes, they meet as a group with the field supervisor to clarify course expectations and grading criteria, present examples of projects, and discuss supervision guidelines and procedures. The field supervisor schedules a visitation to each practicum site, observes the trainee on site, and discusses student and program characteristics. The trainee and supervisor then review plans and set timelines for completing the projects. Following the first site visit, monitoring of trainee performance comprises occasional telephone conversations and periodic progress reports and work samples delivered by mail, reviewed by the supervisor, and returned by mail. One or two additional site visits or conferences are made during the semester. These are primarily directed towards reviewing projects in their various stages of completion and providing formative or summative evaluation of trainee performance. In general, limitations in time, distance, and communication medium hamper the ability of the supervisor to assess and remediate training deficiencies, provide feedback about performance, and create opportunities for addressing generalization of teaching principles and practices to other program areas. However, through a grant recently received from A.T. & T., work is in progress towards investigating the use of audio-graphic technology, (i.e., A.T.& T.'s PC Overview Scanners), to facilitate supervision of field experiences in off-campus training sites. The Scanners permit simultaneous transmission of voice and document, graphic, or text files. In addition, the information communicated can be reviewed and edited in "real" time, e.g., trainee and trainer can transmit, discuss, evaluate, and revise assessment results or intervention plans as they are sent across phone lines (Chalmers, 1988; Chute & Balthazar, 1987). It is expected that complementing well-organized practicum activities with technical advances in communication will greatly enhance the quality of field experiences offered to trainees in rural communities.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

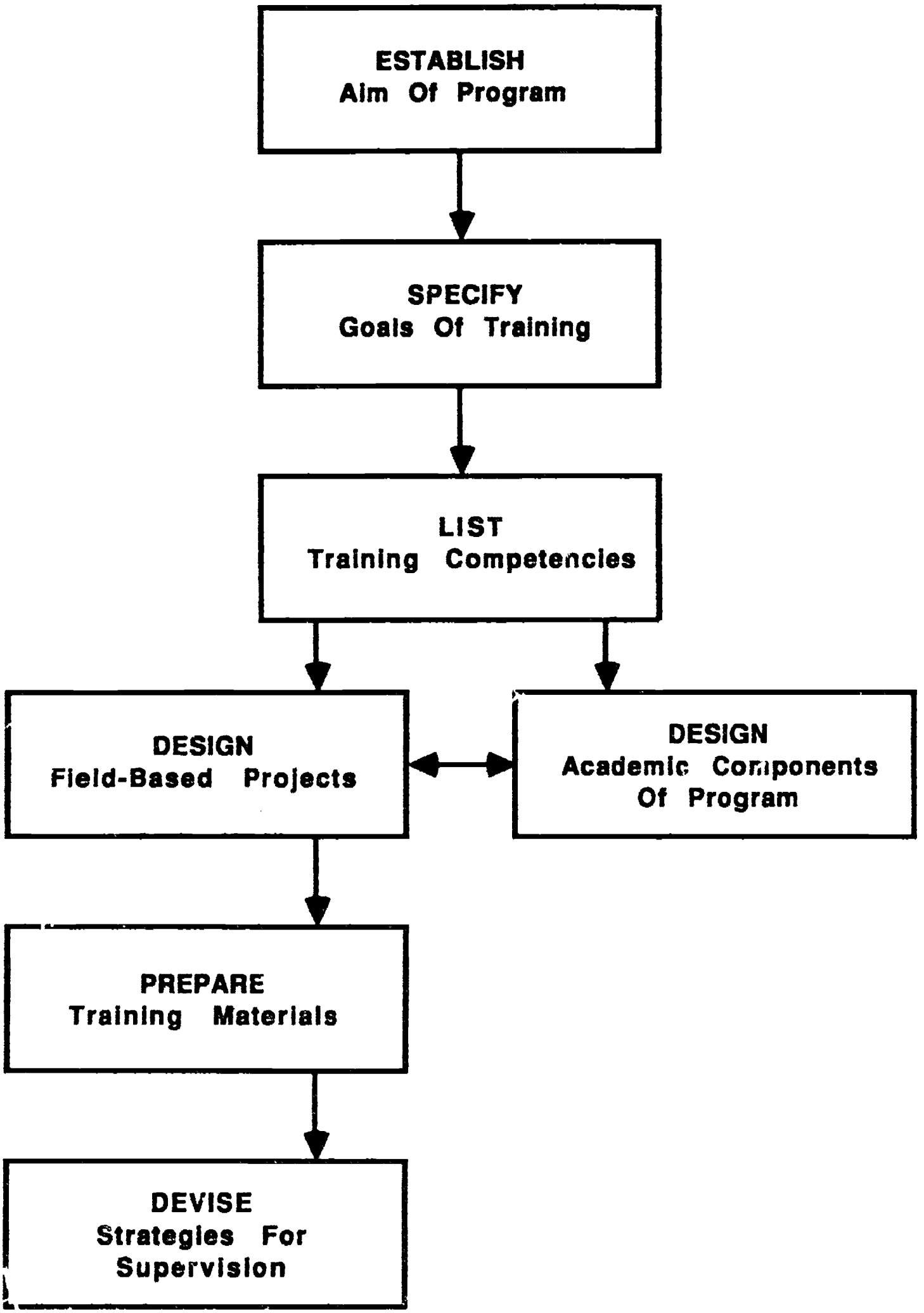
Organizing and supervising the field experience component of a training program are very complex tasks. These activities are particularly problematic in instances where trainees are located in rural communities some distance from the training facility. Limitations in time, resources, and communication medium greatly hamper direct contact with trainees and restrict use of immediate feedback as an instructional tool. Achieving high quality training under these circumstances requires preparing well-planned and highly organized training activities and generating

an array of options for obtaining information about trainee performance and monitoring acquisition of program competencies.

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Sequence of steps in devising field experiences.

Figure 2. Program competencies of Indiana University's program.


ESTABLISH
Aim Of Program
SPECIFY
Goals Of Training
LIST
Training Competencies
DESIGN
Field-Based Projects
DESIGN
Academic Components
Of Program
PREPARE
Training Materials
DEVISE
Strategies For
Supervision

COMPETENCIES

1. Determine requirements for successful participation in regular education.

2. Develop assessment procedures based on requirements

3. Assess student performance with regard to requirements

4. Develop instructional plan for improving student performance in requirement areas

5. Develop a plan for improving academic achievement

6. Develop a plan for improving participation in instructional activities

7. Develop a plan for improving social skills

8. Develop a plan for improving organization and study habits

9. Develop a plan for improving self-management and motivation

10. Prepare implementation and evaluation strategies for preparing student and system for entry and/or retention in regular education

REFERENCES

Blankenship, C. & Lilly, S. (1981) Mainstreaming Students with Learning and Behavior Problems. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

Chalmers, D. (1988). Scanner excels in providing quality images on-screen. Infoworld. October 24. 77-78.

Chute, A. and Balthazar, L (1987). A Review of A.T.& T. National Teletraining Research and Development Projects. Cincinnati: A.T.& T. National Teletraining Center.

Helge, D. (1984) The state of the art of rural education. Exceptional Children. 50, 294-305.

Howell, K. & Morehead, M. (1987). Curriculum-Based Evaluation Special and Remedial Education. Columbus: Merrill.

Lovitt, T. and Hansen, C. (1976). Round one: Placing the child in the right reader. Journal of Learning Disabilities. 9, 347-353.

Marrs, L. (1984). A bandwagon without music. Preparing rural special education. Exceptional Children. 50, 334-342.

Pagney, B. (1983). What advantages can conventional education derive from correspondence education? In D. Stewart, D. Keegan, and B. Holmberg (Eds.) Distance Education: International Perspectives. New York: St. Martin's Press.

O'Connor, N. & Rotatori, A. (1987). Providing for rural special education needs. In A. Rotatori, M. Banbury, & R. Fox (Eds.) Issues in Special Education. Mountain View, Ca.: Mayfield.

Pelton, M. (1983). Staff Development in Small and Rural School Districts. Arlington, Va.: American Association of School Administrators.

Treadway, D. (1984). Higher education in Rural America. New York: College Entrance Examination Board.

Tucker, J. (1985). Curriculum-based assessment: An introduction. Exceptional Children. 52, 199-204.

The Adaptive Approach System:

A Trainer of Trainers' Manual

Developed by

Dr. Imogene Land

and

Dr. Kay S. Bull

Oklahoma State University

(1989)

569

ABSTRACT

The Adaptive Approach System

For years big city educational consultants have been teaching teachers how to adapt materials to meet the needs of students who are not average. We have seen "Make-It and Take-It's," "Folder Factories," "Games" workshops in innumerable formats. The problem is that there is no way, for the teacher, to determine if the materials will be appropriate for his or her classroom. Rural practitioners know that materials do not stand alone, they are not always appropriate, and what is appropriate for one child may not work with another.

This presentation focuses on the development of a teacher centered system for the adaptation of materials. This is based on the premise that the teacher is the only subject matter expert in the classroom, the only counselor, interest assessor, diagnostic testor and so forth. Information will be presented on (1) How to develop an adaptive system, (2) Techniques for packaging materials, (3) Techniques for finding alternative materials, (4) Techniques for presenting alternative materials. Descriptive examples of how the system has been implemented will be provided for both elementary and secondary level teachers.

Teachers/administrators who attend this presentation will receive copies of materials and ideas on how they can become change agents in their own schools. One teacher providing adapted materials only influences a few children, a teacher who can teach others can change an entire school system. Participants will be provided with sufficient resources to develop a basic adaptive approach system workshop for their own school or district. This will include copies of overheads, handouts and access to a videotape on the construction of various packaging techniques for individualized self-checking materials.

Table of Contents

	Page
Preface	1
Introduction	1
The Setting: Where the Adaptive Approach Developed	1
The Adaptive Approach System	2
The Adaptive Approach: Teacher Preparation Methods	6
Planning the Workshop	9
Samples Workshop Agenda	13
Sample Three-Hour Workshop Agenda	14
Sample One-Day Agenda	15
Sample Letter to Participants	16
Conducting the Workshop	17
Evaluation of the Workshop	20
Appendix A - Resources	
1. Material to be Used for Handouts to the Workshop Participants when Appropriate	21
a. Mainstreaming/Suggested Teaching Strategies for Dealing with the Mainstreamed Handicapped Student	22
b. Suggestions for Dealing with the Mainstreamed G/T Student	26
c. Self Directed Learning	29
d. The Adaptive Approach: An Introduction to a System for Adapting Materials for Multiple Levels and Learning Styles in the Regular Classroom (used with video tape)	44
2. Transparency Masters	61
Appendix B - Bloom's Centers	
1. Suggested Bloom's Centers for the Secondary Student-Introduction	64
a. Developing Learning Centers	65
b. Packaging Bloom's Centers	67
c. Bloom's Taxonomy	70
d. Bloom's Taxonomy - A Detailed Breakdown	71
e. Definitions and Example Questions/Objectives	75
f. Sample of Individual Folder: The Swamp Rabbit	84
Appendix C - Forms	
1. Sample Evaluation Form	89
2. Order Form for Video Tape: The Adaptive Approach	90

June Canty Lemke, Ed. D.
Assistant Professor of Education
University of Redlands
Redlands, California 92373
(714) 793-2121

"SUPPORTING BEGINNING TEACHERS IN RURAL AND SMALL SCHOOLS"

Introduction

This paper will present the findings of a Summer 1988 survey of 256 schools in five counties in Southern California housed in districts which are small or rural. The survey asked principals to identify: 1) the services provided to support beginning teachers, 2) the services provided to continuing teachers for professional development, and 3) the inservice education programs specifically targeted to increase retention of teachers. The survey was preceded by a review of the literature concerning the needs of beginning teachers in small and rural school districts. This review showed the needs of these teachers differ significantly from the needs of teachers who begin their careers in urban and suburban districts that employ a much larger number of teachers and have greater resources.

Specifically, this paper will: 1) present a summary of the pertinent literature that shows that the needs of beginning teachers in rural and small schools differ significantly from the needs of other beginning teachers; 2) describe the 1988 survey methodology; 3) present the data gathered as a result of the survey showing the ways these districts handle this problem, the ways they reduce teacher attrition rates, and the topics their inservice education programs address; 4) present the information collected about the vacancy rate anticipated and reasons for the openings; and 5) will provide conclusions from the study and a recommended bibliography.

Review of the Literature

The statistics concerning teacher attrition rates shows serious problems: 26% of new teachers leave the profession after their first two years and 60% of all teachers leave after their first five years of teaching (Henry, 1986, p. 10). The two most frequently cited reasons are that they leave to accept a job that pays more and that they are unable to cope with the problems of teaching (Henry, 1986, p. 17). The concerns that beginning teachers share are problems with classroom management, student discipline, making the adjustment to the physical demands of teaching, and managing the instructional demands of teaching. Other problems cited

include difficulties managing interpersonal relationships with parents and staff, the sacrifice of leisure time, and justification of work demands to others outside the workplace (Myton, 1984, p. 8).

The segment of the educational system represented by rural and small schools is sizeable and the problems they face are real and deserve attention. There are approximately 12,000 small and rural school districts in the United States, accounting for approximately 67% of all schools. Approximately 500,000 students (35% of all students) attend small schools and approximately 50,000 teachers are employed. More than 25% of all school districts enroll less than 300 students (Swift, 1984, p. 1). The major problems for new teachers in rural districts, according to district administrators, include the adjustment to geographic isolation, population sparsity, and difficulty with "community fit" into the lifestyle and expectations of the community (Horn, 1985, p. 13). The attrition rate in rural and small schools is extremely high; Helge and Marrs (1981, p. 12) reported a turnover rate of 30-50% in rural areas, culminating in a complete turnover every three years. Many districts report difficulty in locating qualified applicants for positions that are vacant for long periods of time (Helge and Marrs, 1981, p. 2).

Teachers in these schools report there are many positive features to working in small schools and communities, including small class size, increased opportunity for individualized instruction and the chance to know each child as an individual, fewer behavioral problems, less bureaucracy, greater student and parent participation in schools and school activities, greater heterogeneity of the social class, and a sense of greater teacher impact on the curriculum (Miller and Sidebottom, 1985, p. 3 and Swift, 1984, p. 1).

The problems arise in finding qualified teachers for these positions. The characteristics described "ideal" for a teacher in a rural school include being certified to teach more than one subject area or grade level in the same classroom during the same time span, being able to teach students with a wide range of abilities in a single classroom, and being able to overcome the students' cultural differences and add to their understanding of the larger society. Other desirable characteristics include being prepared to supervise several extra curricular activities and the ability to adjust to the uniqueness of the community in terms of social opportunities, lifestyles, and loss of privacy (Campbell, 1985, p. 7 and Horn, 1985, p. 14).

Administrators report they assist beginning teachers in rural schools by offering a pre-school year orientation program, by pairing the new teacher

with a master teacher, by assigning the new teacher an out of class project that requires interaction with other school personnel, and by making regular visits to the beginning teacher's classroom (Miller and Sidebottom, 1985, p. 26). Researchers also recommend that these problems may be eased by increasing inservice practices, initially reducing teaching and other instructional responsibilities and increasing time for planning and organizing instruction, providing opportunities to observe the teaching of more experienced colleagues, and offering opportunities for beginning teachers to interact with one another (Swift, 1984, p. 2).

Small and rural school districts also report difficulty in retaining qualified teachers. Included in the literature are suggestions for several long term strategies including reimbursement of dues for professional association memberships, opportunities for sabbatical and faculty exchange programs, reimbursement of tuition, and provision of release time for travel to professional meetings. Suggestions for inservice and staff development activities in small or rural schools include the use of alternative instructional formats such as cable and 2-way television systems and correspondence courses and the development of regional inservice education centers. Another suggestion is to give salary increments for teaching assignments which require multiple subject areas or grade level responsibilities (Swift, 1984, p. 2).

In conclusion, the literature shows that the needs of all beginning teachers are great, but that the needs of teachers who begin their careers in small and rural schools differ significantly from those of other teachers and are even more difficult to solve, resulting in increased attrition.

The Survey

The first major task was to develop a questionnaire to identify:

1) what support services are made available to beginning teachers (mentor teachers, meetings with school support service providers, meetings with community members),
2. what support for professional development is made available for teachers in those districts (tuition remission, support for travel, other programs),
3. what inservice education programs are conducted by small or rural school districts (topics, who is responsible for planning, who does the training),
4. what vacancies were expected for the 1988-1989 school year,
5. what the reasons are for the vacancies (population growth, retirements, resignations).

The next step was to identify the districts in four counties in Southern California (Orange, Riverside, San Bernardino, and San Diego) who enroll fewer than 5000 students; 270 schools in 66 districts were identified. Many of the schools serve less than 250 students; most are located in outlying areas, although some are in small districts adjacent to suburban areas. All were public schools.

The questionnaires were mailed to the building principals with a return deadline set approximately two months later. The data was compiled two weeks after the deadline; 105 completed questionnaires were returned (approximately 39%). The breakdown of the number of questionnaires mailed and returned by schools in each county is shown below:

COUNTY NAME	NUMBER MAILED	NUMBER RETURNED	%
Orange	58	16	28
Riverside	44	24	61
San Bernardino	85	30	35
San Diego	83	35	42.

Support Services for Beginning Teachers

Administrators reported that they usually offer a mentor teacher as a support provider for new teachers. Meetings with other school staffmembers, including special support staff, are also used frequently to assist the new teacher in the adjustment to the school system. Relatively few principals reported they arranged meetings between the new teachers and key community persons. The data is shown below:

TYPE OF PROGRAM	TOTAL	OR CTY	RIV CTY	SB CTY	SD CTY
Mentor	90%	94%	100%	80%	89%
Meetings w/support staff	79%	81%	75%	73%	86%
Meetings w/community	13%	6%	25%	17%	6%
Other	85%	63%	92%	13%	66%.

(Key: OR - Orange, RIV - Riverside, SB - San Bernardino, SD - San Diego)

When asked what other types of support they offer, many principals reported they provided orientation programs and regularly scheduled meetings to assist the new teacher throughout the school year. Other frequently cited support strategies included assigning new teachers to special projects with other school personnel and assigning peer support teams. Less often mentioned included arranging for release time to allow the new teacher to observe other teachers, and arranging for tours of the district and meetings with school board members and student body

leaders. The totals are shown in the table below:

Type of Program	Number of times cited
Assigning to peer teams	10
Assigning a buddy teacher	7
Assigning a special project with others	12
Meetings with principal	17
Meetings with school board members	1
Meetings with student body leaders	1
Providing orientation sessions	21
Providing orientation handbooks	3
Arranging for a tour of the district	1
Providing support to attend conferences	1
Arranging for release time to observe	4.

Opportunities for Professional Development

Administrators responded that they use a variety of strategies to offer professional development opportunities to their teaching staff. The strategy most frequently cited was money for travel to conferences and professional meetings; relatively few reported they offer tuition reimbursement. For more specific information, please study the table below:

TYPE OF PROGRAM	TOTAL	OR CTY	RIV CTY	SB CTY	SD CTY
Tuition reimbursement	29%	25%	25%	30%	31%
Travel money	82%	56%	96%	80%	86%
Other	91%	49%	75%	100%	100%.

The other types of programs offered for professional development which were mentioned frequently include using SIP days for inservice programs, providing release time to allow teachers to attend conferences and professional meetings, advancement on the salary scale, and providing summer workshops. Less frequently mentioned were sabbatical programs, administrative internship programs, and arranging to import a university course to a more convenient location. For specific data, please see the table shown below:

TYPE OF PROGRAM	NUMBER OF TIMES CITED
SIP days for inservice	35
Advancement on the salary scale	11
Arranging for release time to attend conferences	16
Providing summer workshops	7
Importing university courses	2
Providing sabbatical programs	1
Providing administrative internship programs	1.

Inservice Education Topics

When asked which topics have been offered for inservice education aimed at retention of their teaching staff, administrators responded that they have provided a wide array of current topics in recent years. Five topics were cited frequently: assertive discipline, clinical teaching and supervision, effective teaching strategies, curriculum alignment and AIMS, and cooperative learning. Many other topics were listed, but were cited less frequently; the specific responses are listed below:

TOPIC	NUMBER OF TIMES CITED
Curriculum alignment/AIMS	13
Cooperative learning	12
Clinical teaching and supervision	11
Effective teaching strategies	10
Assertive discipline	9
Critical thinking	5
Stress management	4
Computing for teachers	3
Learning styles	3
Mastery learning	2
Writing across the curriculum	2
Disaster preparedness	1
Motivation/reinforcement theory	1
Substance abuse	1
Jazzercise	1
Holistic scoring	1.

Number and Types of Vacancies for 1988-89

When asked about the number and types of vacancies in teaching positions anticipated for the 1988-89 school year, principals reported varying levels of success in attracting and retaining qualified teachers. The most frequently cited reason for the vacancies was the opening of a new classroom. Teachers leaving the district was the reason cited next most

often; teachers transferring to another position in the district or retiring were the next most frequently cited reasons. Teachers going on leave of absence was the next most frequently cited reason, with teachers leaving the profession listed relatively infrequently. For specific data, please see the table below:

REASON FOR VACANCY	PER CENT CITED
Opening of new classroom	34
Leaving district	22
Transferring within district	13
Retiring	11
Going on leave of absence	9
Leaving the profession	4
Other	6.

Other comments

When invited to make other comments, administrators responded with many characteristics which they described as contributors or inhibitors to their success in attracting and retaining qualified teachers. It was extremely interesting to note that one principal might list a characteristic as a problem, while another principal listed it as a positive element. The specific responses are listed below:

CHARACTERISTIC	SEEN AS PROBLEM	SEEN AS SUCCESS
Salary level	8	5
Climate	3	8
Commute from residential areas	3	7
Good staff development programs	0	8
Distance to university	2	5
Locating bilingual/special ed. tchrs	5	0
Support from principal/board	0	4
Small town culture	3	1
Early hiring practices	1	3
Adjusting to cultural changes	3	0
Hiring military spouses	2	1
Giving credit for prior teaching	1	2
Year-round school schedule	1	1
Housing costs	1	0
California credential requirements	1	0.

Conclusions

After examining the data from the survey and comparing it with the suggestions from the research, several conclusions come to mind. First, it

appears that attrition due to teachers leaving the profession is not a serious problem, possibly due to the surge in population growth in Southern California and relatively good working conditions. Second, school districts in this area seem to be providing many of the support services for beginning teachers that the research suggests, although some services, such as help in adjusting to the local community, are not often provided. Many districts reported difficulty in attracting teachers certified to teach in bilingual classrooms and special education was pointed out as another problemmatic area. Lower salaries in districts in rural areas were often cited as problems as well.

It does appear that some of the problems reported in districts in other regions of the United States are not being experienced in Southern California. However, there are enough problems reported to heighten concern on the part of teacher educators, concerns such as inclusion in the teacher preparation program of field experiences in small districts and in rural areas to make potential teachers aware of both the benefits and drawbacks of working in these districts so as to encourage them to seek employment. It also appears that universities should make more effort to enable teachers in these areas to participate in graduate programs on-site or by television or other innovative delivery techniques.

The data also suggests that districts should consider working cooperatively to provide inservice and continuing education programs and to try to be more flexible in giving credit for prior teaching experience.

The concerns of small and rural schools districts in Southern California about recruitment and retention and the needs of beginning teachers in these districts are real and deserve continued attention; these problems will not disappear and in order for the quality of education in the region to continue at present levels, these problems must be addressed.

References

Campbell, A. (1985). *Components of Rural School Excellence* Kansas City, Missouri: National Rural Education Forum. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, No. ED 258 783).

Helge, D. (1983). *Addressing the Report of the Commission on Excellence in Education....from the Rural Perspective* Murray, Kentucky: American Council on Rural Special Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, No. ED 234 939).

Helge, D. & Marrs, L. (1981). *Recruitment and Retention in Rural America* Murray, Kentucky: National Conference on Special Education in Rural Areas. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, No. ED 199 022).

Henry, M. (1986). "Strengths and Needs of First-Year Teachers." *Teacher Educator*, 2, 10-18.

Horn, J. (1985). *Recruitment and Preparation of Quality Teachers for Rural Schools* Kansas City, Missouri: National Rural Education Forum. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, No. ED 258 785).

Miller, J. & Sidebottom, D. (1985). *Teachers: Finding and Keeping the Best in Small and Rural School Districts* Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, No. ED 254 377).

Myton, D. (1984). *Study on Needs of Beginning Teachers: Executive Report.* Salem, Oregon: Teacher Standards and Practices Commission. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, No. ED 275 625).

Swift, D. (1984). *Finding and Keeping Teachers: Strategies for Small Schools.* Las Cruces, New Mexico: ERIC Clearingnouse on Rural Education and Small Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, No. ED 259 875).

NRSSC Rural and Small Schools Conference
Fort Lauderdale, Florida
March 8-12, 1989

Kathy Lewis
TENNESSEE CENTER FOR RURAL EDU.
P.O. Box 70
Jamestown, TN 38556
(615) 879-5828

TENNESSEE'S NATIONAL MODEL FOR RURAL EDUCATION

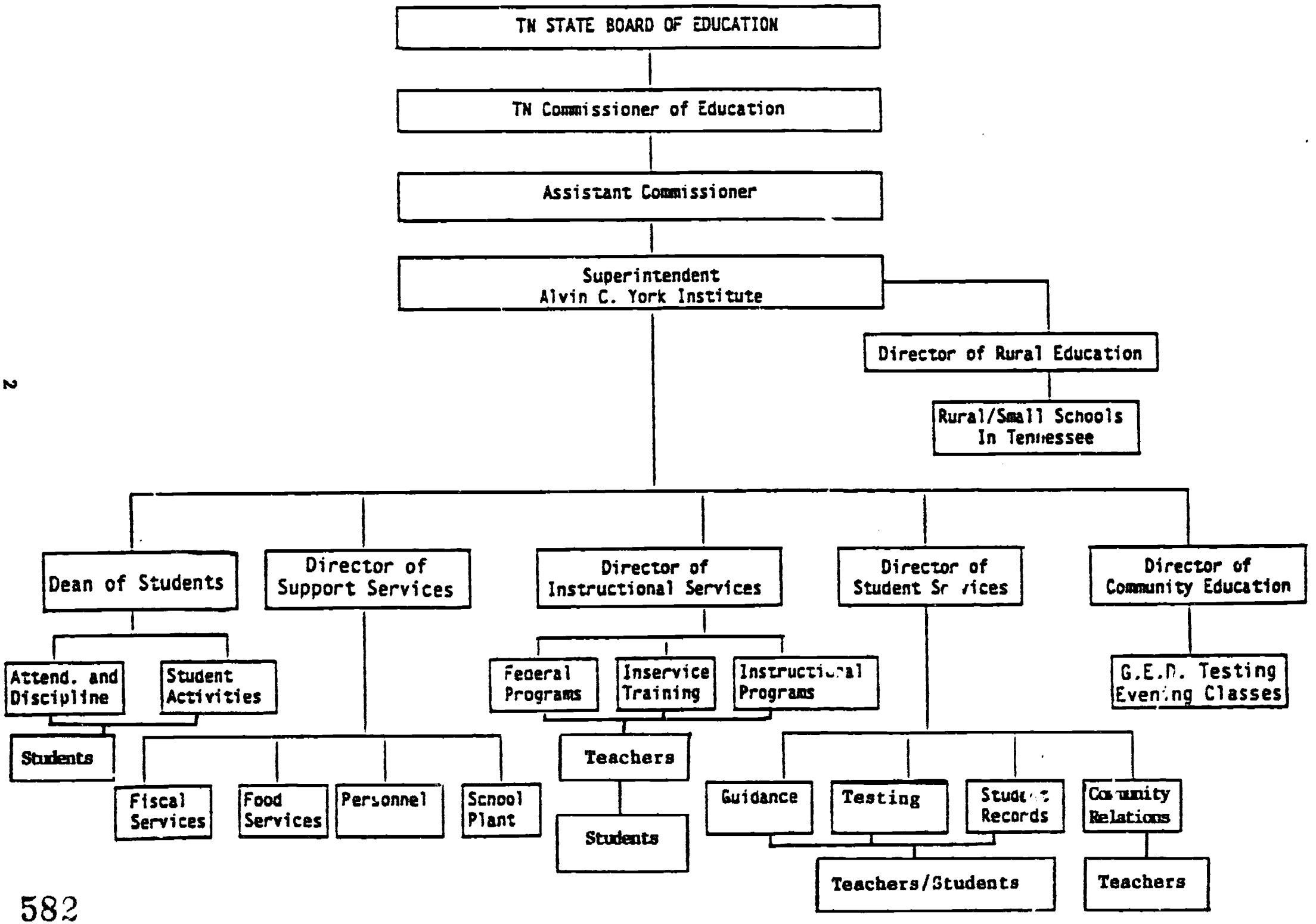
When Alvin C. York returned from France and World War I in May 1919, he had visions of providing educational opportunities for the youth of his rural county. Sgt. York set about the business of raising the capital to build and operate a school, involving some of the United State's more prominent citizens. The high school operated from 1926 to 1937 as a private school with Alvin C. York managing affairs. The Tennessee General Assembly of 1937 accepted responsibility for the school, placed it under the governance of the State Board of Education, and made direct appropriation for its support. Since 1937, it has continued to operate in this manner as a living memorial to Sgt. Alvin C. York.

The Alvin C. York Institute is the only state-operated and wholly state financed comprehensive secondary school in Tennessee. The State Board of Education, the State Department of Education, and the Tennessee Legislature, with the help of the local advisory council and faculty, have made efforts over the years to establish York Institute as a leader in rural education. As a part of Tennessee's emergence as a leader in educational reform, York Institute's mission was expanded on July 1, 1986, to include dynamic leadership in the development of rural education throughout the State. Designated as the **TENNESSEE CENTER FOR RURAL EDUCATION**, Alvin C. York Institute works to enrich the quality of educational life for students in rural schools. The current strengths of rural schools are being identified and enhanced while corrective strategies for deficiencies proposed, field tested, and disseminated. The unique problems of rural schools are being studied to provide information for local, state, and national decision makers.

The objectives of Alvin C. York Institute's expanded mission are to: 1) continue to assess the school's present program for excellence and make necessary improvements so it can be a model for rural education, 2) promote cooperative efforts between school/community and governmental/private agencies, 3) implement research and development in areas that are rural specific, 4) provide technical assistance in the diffusion of promising practices, and 5) establish a resource component for use by persons involved in rural education.

The **TENNESSEE CENTER FOR RURAL EDUCATION** is a model that can be emulated by other states. Few, if any, other comprehensive secondary schools are funded and operated by the state in which they are located. Having a model rural school afforts many opportunities to demonstrate viable programs for other rural schools to observe and ready assistance is available to duplicate the practices at the local level throughout the state.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF ALVIN C. YORK INSTITUTE



PROGRAM GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Goal 1. To develop York Institute as a statewide center for the study, development, adaptation, implementation, evaluation and dissemination of programs and practices that work in rural settings.

1.1 Establish an office of rural education at York Institute

1.1.1 Hire an administrator and a secretary

1.1.2 Provide travel budget for administrator, faculty, staff, and Advisory Council members

1.1.3 Equip the office (office furniture, computer, software and modem, typewriters, telephone, copier, office supplies and equipment, monthly operating expenses)

1.1.4 Use five part-time projects assistants to collect and process research data (by contractual arrangement with Tennessee Technological University or other universities, using graduate assistants)

1.2 Establish York Institute as a conference center for statewide meetings.

1.2.1 Publicize the availability of York Institute for statewide meetings

1.2.2 Host statewide conferences as appropriate

1.3 Provide statewide leadership to other rural school systems by providing a forum for sharing and disseminating information related to rural education

1.3.1 Publish a newsletter on rural education and the project, spotlighting needs of rural education

1.3.2 Sponsor an annual conference on Rural Education in Tennessee and involve selected participants, including rural educators, school board members, the Tennessee Department of Education, institutions of higher education, community leaders, parents, and private enterprise in the identification and solution of problems of rural schools

1.3.3 Faculty groups will study programs identified as being successful in rural settings, and will review current literature and research for programs and practices with the potential for impacting rural education in Tennessee

1.4 Identify rural secondary programs offering potential for adaption by other rural schools that have produced a high success rate on a limited budget

1.5 Provide leadership in establishing a statewide organization for rural education

1.6 Establish a system for a statewide communications network for dissemination of information on rural education

1.7 Assist in implementation of program adaptation in rural secondary school settings

1.8 Evaluate programs and practices in rural secondary settings to determine cost and effectiveness

Goal 2. To develop York Institute as an exemplary model for rural secondary education.

2.1 Develop plans for making York Institute an exemplary rural secondary school

2.1.1 Involve staff in long range planning by departments and establish total group goals to develop York Institute as an exemplary rural secondary school. Stipends will be paid for any time required beyond the contractual agreement

2.1.2 Utilize York Institute Advisory Council in long-range planning with the community, including, but not limited to, public forums, radio talk shows, dinner meetings

2.1.3 Engage well-recognized consultant(s) to assist in planning as appropriate

2.2 Provide professional growth activities for the staff which will enable them to improve or implement exemplary programs

2.2.1 Visit exemplary secondary programs across content areas. Follow-up will include dissemination, sharing of findings with York Institute staff, training as needed. Programs may be in- or out-of-state

2.2.2 Visit a variety of secondary schools in Tennessee to become knowledgeable of other building level operations

2.2.3 Attend appropriate professional meetings (National Council of Teachers of English, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Council of Teachers of Math, National Science Teachers, etc. and appropriate administrative level professional conferences)

2.2.4 Create a professional library to provide for individual and group faculty study

2.2.5 Provide specialized workshops in areas of identified need or needs

2.2.6 Consult a well recognized consultant(s) to assist in providing professional development activities when needed

2.3 Initiate program changes by departments based upon information gathered in staff development activities such as, but not limited to, computer literacy, local heritage, foreign languages, new courses, visual/performing arts, updating of vocational courses

2.4 Initiate school-wide programs such as alternative schools, drop-out prevention programs, work-study for economically deprived students, student high school scholarships, high school student literacy programs

2.5 Examine and field test, when appropriate, adult programs for literacy and high school completion

Goal 3. To facilitate and conduct research and development activities related to the status and improvement of rural education.

3.1 Develop a definition of rural schools in Tennessee

3.1.1 A group of rural educators will develop a definition for testing and refinement. A number of area meetings for rural educators will be conducted during this process

3.2 Determine the perceived needs of rural secondary schools in Tennessee

3.2.1 Secondary schools in Tennessee will be contacted through a survey (needs assessment). When definition for rural schools is agreed upon, needs will be classified accordingly. Structured telephone interviews will be conducted with a random sample of schools to validate the findings

3.3 Collect and synthesize base line data at York and in nine pilot high schools (one from each SDE district)

3.3.1 A variety of data sources generally accepted as indicators of school success will be collected and synthesized to provide base line data for longitudinal studies. Graduate assistants mentioned in 1.1.5 will be utilized for this activity

3.4 Initiate studies of rural school effectiveness, including the characteristics of effective rural schools, effective leadership and strategies which capitalize on the strengths of rural schools and seek to correct the deficiencies

3.5 Initiate studies based upon the results of the needs assessment and continue to refine the definition of rural education

3.6 Utilize results of research in the development of related activities for the improvement of rural school effectiveness

3.7 Initiate studies on educational finance unique to rural schools

Goal 4. To facilitate and promote cooperative efforts between the school/community and governmental/private agencies for the improvement of rural education.

4.1 Develop a comprehensive program of school/community and governmental/private agencies involvement, including, but not limited to, the organization of an alumni association, partnerships with local business and industry, community education programs, volunteer programs

4.2 Employ a school/community coordinator to facilitate, promote, administer, and publicize cooperative efforts

4.3 Pursue unique and innovative partnerships which will be effective in creating cooperative efforts statewide between rural schools and public and private agencies

Goal 5. To provide leadership for rural schools in the implementation of the Comprehensive Education Reform Act and State Board of Education mandates and monitor their impact.

5.1 Begin longitudinal studies of the impact of CERA and State Board mandates at York Institute

5.1.1 Compile a data base on the status of York Institute, beginning with school year 1983-84, and collect comparable data for successive years

5.2 Provide undergraduate teacher education majors with meaningful field experiences in rural schools

5.2.1 Invite regional teacher education institutions to utilize York Institute as a field experience center

5.3 Provide university professors with direct involvement in rural schools

5.3.1 York Institute will work with higher education institutions to arrange and schedule appropriate activities (supervision of field experiences, substitute teaching, conducting workshops, resource persons)

5.4 Develop models of rural school/university cooperative efforts that result in improved school effectiveness

5.5 Develop recommendations for the effective use of extended contract time in rural settings

"Effective Schools" Policy Training For Rural School Boards

Richard P. Lipka, Director
Center For Educational Services,
Evaluation And Research
Pittsburg State University
Pittsburg, Kansas 66762
1-316-231-7000 Ext 4486

Herbert A. Gailey
Director of Curriculum
Baxter Springs Public Schools
Baxter Springs, Kansas 66713
1-316-856-2315

Presentation at the Ninth Annual National Conference of the American Council on Rural and Small Schools, Fort Lauderdale, Florida, March, 1989.

Richard P. Lipka, Director
Center For Educational Services,
Evaluation And Research
Pittsburg State University
Pittsburg, Kansas 66762

Herbert A. Gailey
Director of Curriculum
Baxter Springs Public Schools
Baxter Springs, Kansas 66713

INTRODUCTION

Our presentation will be organized into four sections. Section One will establish a context by providing you with a brief sketch of the philosophy and functioning of the district-wide curriculum council in Baxter Springs, Kansas, a school district of 912 students, kindergarten through twelfth grade.

The second section will detail the seven correlates embedded in the effective schools research. The emphasis in this section will be on the activity patterns necessary to implement the effective schools' concept.

Section Three reflects the results of a questionnaire study designed to elicit practices of school boards in effective rural schools.

The fourth section will detail phase one of a training program for the Board of Education in Baxter Springs, Kansas.

SECTION ONE - BAXTER SPRINGS: A CONTEXT

For those districts who are active in curriculum revitalization, there are several approaches that can be considered. Perhaps "reflex-like" reaction to dictates from the central office, boards, state departments, and volatile parent groups. Or perhaps slickly packaged, canned curriculums written and developed by those outside of the district educational environment.

In the small school system of Baxter Springs, Kansas, however, a climate has been nurtured that fosters effective and cooperative efforts toward curriculum re-vitalization. Those efforts began during the late spring of the 1982-83 school year and continue to grow and develop into 1989. The approach was not conceived as a finished blueprint, but rather as a developmental effort that, to date, has yielded seven major activities: 1) established the position of Director of Curriculum, 2) articulated a K-12 master curriculum plan, 3) formally involved certified staff, patrons, and students in the curriculum process, 4) established a university/school partnership, 5) initiated an on-going formative evaluation procedure to focus and refine the planning process, 6) focused a curriculum improvement effort on reading K-12, 7) developed and held instructional leadership sessions for district administrators.

The clarity and focus of the effort in Baxter Springs involves the input and vision of all the constituencies that comprise a school district. Support for improvement exists at all levels: teachers, students, patrons, and administrators. This approach has provided a forum from which views can be shared, re-shaped, disgarded and/or implemented. The philosophy of this approach is grass-roots, bottom-up with a broad base of support being developed within the districts constituency which targets areas of need and courses of action.

A clear example of this philosophy was in the drafting of district-wide educational goals. The first draft of the goals was shared with all teachers, administrators, students, parents, and a random sample of patrons in Baxter Springs. All phases of the work on the district-wide goals were discussed in the local newspaper with readers encouraged to offer input into the process. Two important dividends resulted from this effort. First, the teachers gained insight into the ability of their students to

question constructively and to contribute to the goal-making process. The teachers still comment proudly about the seriousness displayed by their students. Secondly, the community responded most favorably to the task, and the language of two of the district goals directly reflect community input - a most welcome development. As a result of this level of commitment, a committee composed of a teacher, a parent, the Director of Curriculum, and two students, has developed a plan which has been implemented for two students to serve on the curriculum council. These students are to be high schoolers, but have responsibility for channeling the thoughts of students from kindergarten through high school into the curriculum deliberations.

The continuing support of the Board of Education for these curriculum efforts as evidenced by: monthly release time for teachers on a half-day basis, for council meetings, costs of conferences, testing materials, and consultants has been instrumental in the success of this effort.

SECTION TWO - EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS CORRELATES AND PROCEDURES

Before applying the seven correlates of effective schools (see Table #1) at the school site a common effort to develop the reasons and processes for their utilization is a must for those to be involved in the process: administrators, board members, teachers, patrons, and students.

According to Lezotte and Bancroft (1985) two specific questions need to be studied and discussed:

1. What is the motive for school improvement? (p. 54)

2. What will constitute evidence of school improvement in your school or district? (p. 55)

The staff needs the opportunity to become familiar with the research and helped to understand the relationship between the research and their own instructional practices as this has the potential to lower the anxiety for the change process.

A school improvement team needs to be selected that will be open to all segments of the school's constituency. The success of this team is to a large extent based on the

time made available for them to work and their willingness to address the two aforementioned questions.

A shared consensus does much to move this process down the road to effectiveness. As the team works to develop goals for the effort it is important that goals include change in student outcomes across the total student population. A review of current and past testing will be necessary with results from both cognitive and affective instruments deemed important in the process (Lezotte and Bancroft, 1985).

The seven correlates should be used to assess the needs of a specific school. The data from needs assessments, including such instruments as parent surveys and self-concept inventories, provide a basis for the development of a plan for improvement. With this information in hand, approaches to solve or meet the goals are appropriate.

Once these recommendations for improvement have been determined they should be circulated to the entire staff, random samples of parents, and students for feedback and refinement. The highest level of support and agreement should be sought. It is important to remember there is no quick fix, thus a time table is a desirable component of an improvement plan. It is not necessary to toss the baby out with the bath water, so the team will want to protect and nurture the best from past practices along with the improvement plan (Lezotte and Bancroft, 1985).

This process provides ownership and commitment for the people involved in the development of the plan and its implementation. Several activity patterns for the schools constituency are vital to the cause:

1. Shared decision-making
2. Opportunities to become familiar with the research and its implication for instruction
3. Time provided for the effort
4. Selection of a team
5. Consensus building
6. Goals for improvement
7. A review and study of outcomes in both the cognitive and affective domains
8. Application of the seven correlates
9. Needs assessments and surveys
10. The articulation of the plan for improvement

Widening the ownership and an open structure for school and district improvement provides a climate for the effort to continue. Successes are expected and problems are worked out, dead ends are re-navigated, and attitudes are positive.

SECTION THREE - THE QUESTIONNAIRE STUDY

With the gracious help of Lawrence Lezotte's staff and others we were able to identify twenty rural schools (under 2,000 students as total district enrollment) that have been adjucated as effective by utilizing the effective schools criteria including Stedman's (1987) reconceptualization of the variables.

Each of these schools was sent a questionnaire (see Attachment A) to be completed by their school boards. Of the twenty questionnaires sent, nine were completed yielding an overall return rate of 45 percent.

To facilitate interpretation of the questionnaire data, allow us to step back and share the construction of the questionnaire with you.

A review of the effective schools literature was undertaken with a goal of unearthing the correlates embedded in the effective schools movement. This review yielded the seven correlates listed in Table 1. Using the operational definitions of the correlates, a pool of approximately one hundred questions was developed by the authors. This pool was reviewed for clarity and redundancy by the authors and two volunteer board members. The process yielded fifty-five closed and open-ended questions.

These questions were then clustered under the seven correlates to ensure coverage of the correlates yet weighed in such a fashion to reflect the role of the school boards. Thus, while each correlate has at least two questions, "Climate Of High Expectations For Success" and "Clear And Focused Mission" were deemed the most important for board activity and had sixteen and thirteen questions respectively.

The results of the study will be discussed by using the seven correlates as section headings. Given the length limitations for this manuscript, only those closed items with 85 percent agreement or better and the open-ended items will be discussed. The reader is directed to Appendix A - a reproduction of the questionnaire with all response rates and comments.

Safe And Orderly Environment

Four questions, two closed and two open-ended were utilized to obtain information about this correlate. In the area of teacher/teaching continuity, 100 percent of the respondants indicated a negotiated sick leave policy, and 89 percent indicated a negotiated agreement for re-assignment procedures. The open-ended items were more pointed in their wording with question fifty-one stating: "How do you ensure an orderly school environment?" Only two respondants answered this question, with one stating a district-wide discipline code and the second respondant indicated building level panels to address needs and strategies to meet the needs. Three respondants addressed question fifty-two: "How do you ensure an attractive school environment?", with the generalized response being a vigorous and systematic maintenance program.

Climate of High Expectations For Success

Sixteen items - twelve closed, three open-ended items and one combination item were utilized in the study. Eighty-nine percent of the respondants indicated that they have freed their teachers from such non-teaching duties as hall and lunchroom duty. One hundred percent indicated a negotiated agreement stipulating provisions for the amount and frequency of planning time. From an economic perspective, 89% of the respondants have a budget line for staff development; and a financial structure that allows for funding of individual school improvement projects. Within the open-ended format, all of the respondants indicated at least one of the following action patterns: effective schools study groups, performance objectives, building SIP's, staff development, monitoring of achievement and other effective schools correlates, and board adopted policy that includes mission, planning, goals, documentation and assessment.

All respondants stated that they had a system of regular evaluation for both teachers and principals. The length of building principal contracts ranged from one to three years with the modal response being one year. Superintendent contracts ranged from one to four years with a mode of three years.

Instructional Leadership

All of the respondants indicated a requirement for principals to make long-range goals. Further, all respondants indicated that this had to take the form of cooperative goal setting involving the teachers. To accomplish this task administrators were afforded:

inservice, school visitations, professional conferences and principal academies. At the other end of the spectrum, all respondants indicated the administration would be reviewed by the board prior to any dismissal procedure. Further, all respondants indicated that their negotiated agreement with teachers also spelled out the procedures for termination. In terms of board leadership style the open-ended question yielded the following strategies to be visible within the district: attending school functions, rotate board meeting to various schools, school tours, attend staff development and inservice sessions, interview principals, teachers and students, and observe effective instructional strategies in the classroom setting.

Clear And Focused Mission

All respondants indicated that their district policy reflected school improvement as a key priority. This manifested itself in the 100 percent responses to the item of district instructional improvement as a clear expectation in the hiring and evaluation of new staff. One hundred percent indicated the utilization of written job descriptions for administrators. Further, 89% of the respondants indicated this activity took place within a framework that had each school setting its own priorities and utilizing understandable teaching objectives. To accomplish their tasks, board members have had weekend retreats, on-going training involving state board associations, Kelwyn training tapes, and consultants associated with the effective schools movement.

Opportunities To Learn, And Student Time-On-Task

Two questions, one reaching criterion level, were included for this correlate with 100 percent of the respondants indicating that their negotiated agreement with teachers contain provisions for the length of the teaching day.

Frequent Monitoring Of Student Progress

While none of the four items utilized had response rates meeting the criterion level, the simple majority of the respondants indicated system-wide policies relating to student attendance, promotion and achievement.

Home-School Relations

All of the respondants indicated that they made concerted efforts to get good "PR" before the public. These efforts took the form of: district newsletters, school newsletters, district brochures, newspaper supplement, radio program, recognition awards, published district and school report card, and the staffing of a communications coordinator position.

In addition to PR work, eighty-nine percent of the respondants indicated opportunities for parent involvement through: Parent-teacher conferences, principal-parent forums, curriculum nights, open houses, superintendent-parent forums, and parent membership on textbook selection committees.

While there is variability in the data, a clear trend is that in effective schools, boards of education assume a visible, proactive role.

SECTION FOUR - THE BOARD TRAINING PROGRAM

Working with a school board requires the realization that one cannot check their teaching skills at the door. While empowered politically, school board members are laypeople and to build approach behaviors to the educational process requires good, sound pedagogy. With that in mind, we set about designing a program that would include large group, small group and individualized instruction including a segment of "hands-on" activity.

Further, we wanted to capitalize upon Kelley's (1951) ideas embedded in the workshop way of learning - that is, total immersion in the issues away from the telephone, bills and routines of their everyday worklife. Arrangements are being made to hold the Friday-Saturday program in a hotel in the Eastern suburbs of Tulsa, Oklahoma. The schedule has been arranged so that a group of folks with divergent skills can work and play together related to their convergent interest of a better education for the young people of Baxter Springs.

The Friday afternoon session will begin with a discussion of the questionnaire study previously detailed in Section Three of this paper. In addition to the discussion of the results, the board members will be asked to complete the individual phase of the 1-3-6 consensus building

technique prior to the Saturday 8:30 a.m. session. The board members are being asked to prioritize the questionnaire findings as to their importance in the policy and operation of the Baxter Springs Public Schools. They will develop an individual priority list and then build a consensus list, first in groups of three, and finally in a group of six. The "three-six" segment of the technique will take place during the 10:00-11:30 a.m. Saturday session.

Following a leisurely cash bar and dinner the participants will have a formal, whole group presentation by Ms. Kathleen Homlish of the Kansas State Department of Education. Ms. Homlish will speak on "Effective Schools Research And Its Relationship To Outcome Based Education In Kansas". The remainder of the evening will be free time to allow participants to socialize and discuss the issues on an informal basis.

The opening session Saturday morning will be a variety of "hands-on" activities to work on the affective/attitude dimensions of effective schools implementation. One such will be an adaption of the "Future School" game - a board game designed to acquaint individuals with the issues/behaviors involved in the implementation of effective schooling. For example, one stop on the board requires a drawing of a Knowledge card such as: "Active involvement is the key to creative learning"; agreement with this statement allows the player to move ahead three spaces.

Another feature of the game is a free-draw space where players will have one minute to pursuade other players to vote to implement the proposal. One illustrative proposal is: "Use the total community as an educational resource". The player will be allowed to move ahead the same number of spaces as the affirmative votes received for the proposal.

Following the "hands-on" activities the participants will be asked to complete the "three-six" phase of the consensus building technique; the goal of this activity being the establishment of priorities for Board activity over the next couple of years.

The final workshop session will be a whole group session to articulate courses of action with the Baxter Springs School Board in the area of policy-making that utilizes the input of all constituencies in the district. It will be our duties as facilitators to help the board identify tasks which can be completed during the remainder of the school year and tasks that have a high probability of

success as it is important for board members to experience the feelings that accompany success.

It is our desire to end this session by sketching out phase two of the training which we hope will include at least twenty-five percent of a monthly board meeting being dedicated to the "effective schools" activity as a way of ensuring momentum for the district-wide effort.

Kelley, E.C. (1951). The Workshop Way Of Learning, New York: Harper.

Lezotte, L. and Bancroft, B. (1985). "School Improvement Based On Effective Schools Research: A Promising Approach For Economically Disadvantaged And Minority Students". In the workbook for the 5th Annual National School Effectiveness Workshop, Phoenix, Arizona, January 15th-18th, 1988.

Stedman, L. C. (1987). "It's Time We Changed The Effective Schools Formula". Phi Delta Kappan, 69, 215-224.

Table 1*

SAFE AND ORDERLY ENVIRONMENT

At the school site there is an orderly, purposeful, business-like atmosphere which is free from threat or physical harm. The school climate is not oppressive and is conducive to teaching and learning.

CLIMATE OF HIGH EXPECTATIONS FOR SUCCESS

There is a climate of expectations which the staff believes and demonstrates that all students can attain mastery of essential skills and they believe that they have the capability to help all students attain mastery.

CLEAR AND FOCUSED MISSION

Clearly articulated school mission through which the staff shares an understanding of and a commitment to the instructional goals, priorities, assessment procedures and acountability. Staff accept responsibility for students' learning of schools' essential curriculum goals.

OPPORTUNITY TO LEARN, AND STUDENT TIME-ON-TASK

Teacher allocates a significant amount of classroom time to instruction in the essential skills. For a high percentage of the time, students are engaged in whole class or large group planned, teacher directed learning activities.

FREQUENT MONITORING OF STUDENT PROGRESS

Use of specific variety monitoring devices to assess progress individually in both the effective and cognitive domains in a disaggregate manner. Developing strategies for instruction and planning based on outcomes. Student progress is measured frequently.

HOME-SCHOOL RELATIONS

Parents understand and support the school's basic mission and are given the opportunity to play an important role in helping the school achieve their mission.

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Principal acts as instructional leader and effectively and persistently communicates that mission to staff, parents, and students. The principal understands and applies the characteristics of instructional effectiveness in the management of the instructional program.

*Adapted from the text, pages 71-73, of Lezotte and Bancroft (1985). "School Improvement Based On Effective Schools Research: A Promising Approach For Economically Disadvantaged And Minority Students". In the workbook for the 5th Annual National School Effectiveness Workshop, Phoenix, Arizona, January 15th-18th, 1988.

Appendix A

SCHOOL BOARD SURVEY

1. Are there written job descriptions for teachers?

   A. Yes - 56
   B. No - 44

2. Are there written job descriptions for administrators?

   A. Yes - 100
   B. No - 0

3. Did you approach district wide instructional improvement one school at a time?

   A. Yes - 33
   B. No - 67

4. Do you require your administrators to have a democratic approach to supervision in their buildings? (i.e. input from teachers on needs for hall duty)

   A. Yes - 78
   B. No - 22

5. Are principals required to make long range goals to improve instruction?

   A. Yes - 89 - If yes, example please 3 yr. ITIP training program, KMCT improvement strategies, building SIP's yearly plans.
   B. No - 11 - School wide improvement and plans.

6. Does your policy manual contain procedures for establishing individual school improvement committees?

   A. Yes - 56
   B. No - 44

7. Do you have opportunities for administrators to be reviewed by the board of education prior to dismissal procedure?

   A. Yes - 100
   B. No - 0

8. Has the board of education provided release time from non-teaching duties for teachers? (e.g. hall duty, lunchroom duty)

   A. Yes - 89
   B. No - 11

9. Has the board of education required the staff to be evaluated on progress toward specific objectives?

   A. Yes - 78
   B. No - 22

10. Do board of education members visit schools on a regular basis?

    A. Yes - 67
    B. No - 33

11. If you answered yes to Q. 10, What type of involvement do you have in these visits? (i.e. interaction with students, teaching, attending school functions)

    School functions, board meetings at various schools, meet with principal and tour school, attend staff development session, inspect facilities, review district data, interview principals, teachers, students, attend building inservice, observe effective instructional strategies in the classroom setting.

12. How do you insure district instructional improvement? Effective schools study group, ITIP training, performance objectives, monitoring achievement, building SIP, staff development, hearing monthly reports on instructional issues, viligent monitoring documentation, assessment planning, board adopted policy including board mission, SyrSIP, established goals and published evaluations of goals.

13. Does district policy encourage a shared decision making of timelines for individual school improvement projects between teachers and principals?

    A. Yes - 78
    B. No - 22

14. Does the district require quarterly reports in terms of expenditures of district funds?

A. Yes - 67
B. No - 33

15. If you answered yes to Q. 14: Who has responsibility for preparing these reports? Business manager, deputy superintendent, treasurer and superintendent.

16. Does the district require quarterly reports in terms of students grades?

A. Yes - 44
B. No - 56

17. If you answered yes to Q. 16: Who has responsibility for preparing these reports? Guidance, teacher at classroom level, principal at building level, director at district level, superintendent.

18. What is the length of the superintendent's contract? 4,2,1,1-4,3,3,1,3,3, Mode = 3

19. What is the length of the building principal's contract? 1,2,1,1,3,2,1,3,1, Mode = 1

20. Does the negotiated agreement with teachers contain provisions for the length of the teaching day?

A. Yes - 100
B. No - 0

21. Does the negotiated agreement with teachers contain provisions for incentives for professional development?

A. Yes - 56
B. No - 44

22. Does the negotiated agreement with teachers contain provisions for incentives for curriculum development activity?

A. Yes - 44
B. No - 56

23. Does the negotiated agreement with teachers provide provisions for sick leave?

A. Yes - 100
B. No - 0

24. Does the negotiated agreement with teachers provide for re-assignment procedures?

A. Yes - 89
B. No - 11

25. Does the negotiated agreement with teachers contain provisions for the amount and frequency of planning time?

A. Yes - 100
B. No - 0

26. Does the negotiated agreement with teachers provide procedures for termination?

A. Yes - 100
B. No - 0

27. Has the board of education undertaken steps to increase teachers planning time?

A. Yes - 56 - If yes, example please Release time, 1/2 day released per quarter, group common curriculum teachers together for shared planning, increased elementary planning time at least 45 minutes per day.
B. No - 44

28. Has the board of education developed policies to control class size?

A. Yes - 56
B. No - 44

29. Does your policy manual contain procedures for release time for school-wide staff planning?

A. Yes - 56
B. No - 44

30. Is the district evaluation of certified staff in line with district goals?

A. Yes - 100
B. No - 0

31. In the hiring of new certified staff, is it made clear that they are expected to become involved with district instructional improvement?

A. Yes - 100
B. No - 0

32. Does your district have a system of regular evaluation of teachers?

A. Yes - 100
B. No - 0

33. Does your district have a system of regular evaluation of principals?

A. Yes - 100
B. No - 0

34. Does the district budget contain a line item for staff development in areas of diagnosed needs of teachers?

A. Yes - 89
B. No - 11

35. Does your school calendar provide opportunities for parents to visit school on a regular basis? (i.e. parent-teacher conferences, committee work, studies of performance)

A. Yes - 89 - If yes, example please Parent-teacher conferences, principal-parent forums, open house, curriculum night, PTA, textbook committee, superintendent-parent forum.
B. No - 11

36. Do you have parents who are involved at the building level who volunteer their time with no salary?

A. Yes - 78 - If yes, example please 1 to 1 tutoring math/reading, prep work, library volunteers, lunchroom, prevention of substance abuse training.
B. No - 22

37. Does the district financial structure allow funding for individual school improvement projects?

A. Yes - 89
B. No - 11

38. Do you have an administrative training program?

A. Yes - 78 - If yes, example please Inservice, visit other schools, conferences, principal's academy, Kelwyn training, annual program on paid-time.
B. No - 22

39. Have your efforts at improvement generated a need for more clerical help?

A. Yes - 56
B. No - 44

40. Does your district policy show that school improvement is a key priority?

A. Yes - 100
B. No - 0

41. Does your policy manual contain procedures for support of school-site administrative management?

A. Yes - 78
B. No - 22 - No, however hired full-time administrator for each building with no other responsibilities.

42. Are groups involved on a consensus basis in developing goals for schools?

A. Yes - 89 If yes, please circle groups
B. No - 11 involved:

Parents Teachers Students Patrons Administration
Different schools have different groups.

43. Do you have a cooperative teacher and principal approach to goal setting?

A. Yes - 100
B. No - 0

44. Do you make efforts to get good PR before the public?

A. Yes - 100 - If yes, example please Newsletter brochures, communications coordinator, news releases, recognition awards, annual report individual school newsletters, radio program, newspaper supplement, district and school report card.
B. No - 0

45. Do you have a system wide policy for student achievement?

A. Yes - 56
B. No - 44

46. Do you have a system wide policy for promotion of students?

A. Yes - 78 (at elementary level)
B. No - 22

47. Do you have a system wide policy for attendance?

A. Yes - 78
B. No - 22

48. Do you have understandable teaching objectives?

A. Yes - 89
B. No - 11

49. Does every school set a priority for achieving goals?

A. Yes - 89
B. No - 11

50. Are principals required to make long-range goals?

A. Yes - 100
B. No - 0

51. How do you insure an orderly school environment? District goal and policy, procedures: assertive discipline, and control theory; consistent positive reinforcement, consistently applied consequences; self-discipline, respect for school and self; effective schools model; building level panel using effective schools model, discipline code.

52. How do you insure an attractive school environment? Good maintenance program, good home-school relations; target of all constituencies; "I care" philosophy developed in students and teachers; effective schools model; building needs identified and supported by district coordinator of facilities and supplies.

53. Did the board of education receive inservice training related to the effective schools literature and findings?

A. Yes - 89
B. No 11

54. If you answered yes to Q. 53, Please circle those responsible for that training.

National School Board Association

State School Board Association (State Name, please West Virginia School Board Association - 1/2 day every 6 months.)

In-House Training
Week-ends.

Michigan Association of School Boards - Superintendent - on-going since 1983.

Larry Lezotte - monthly effective schools report to board.

Use Kelwyn training tapes - 6 hours.

2 weekend work shops.

On-going - monthly effective schools report to board.

Specific Individual (State Name, please Larry Lezotte)

55. How long was the training? See Above

Thank you for helping your colleagues across the nation!

Implementing and Evaluating

the Life-Centered Career Education Curriculum

Robert J. Loyd, Project Coordinator
University of Missouri-Columbia

Richard T. Roessler, Research Scientist
University of Arkansas-Fayetteville

Donn E. Brolin, Project Director
University of Missouri-Columbia

Rural Special Education Teachers' Institute

Ninth Annual Conference on American Council
on Rural Special Education

March 4-5, 1989

Fort Lauderdale, Florida

Implementing and Evaluating the Life-Centered Career Education Curriculum

Follow-up data (Bellamy, 1985) indicate that special education graduates continue to encounter many difficulties in assuming community living and working roles. To overcome this problem, secondary schools need to offer mildly handicapped students a sequenced career education curriculum with opportunities for community employment experiences (Elrod & Lyons, 1987). Simply requiring additional academic credits is not enough to prepare many students for the demands of the school to work transition (Brolin, Loyd, & Roessler, 1989).

Materials do exist to meet the need for a career education curriculum with a strong employment emphasis. For example, Roessler (1988) and Elrod and Lyons (1987) recommended the adoption of the Life-Centered Career Education (LCCE) Curriculum (Brolin, 1989) and Employment Enhancement Strategies (EES). Developed at the University of Missouri-Columbia under the direction of Donn E. Brolin, the LCCE curriculum is a competency-based program which infuses daily living, personal-social, and occupational skills instruction into the academic subject matter. The focus is on 22 major competencies (See Figure 1) that research has found to be critical for successful adult adjustment in employment and independent community living. The 22 competencies are further subdivided into 97 subcompetencies that can be taught in both regular and special classes depending on the nature of the school and its personnel. The curriculum program contains a comprehensive curriculum guide, 97 LCCE subcompetency instructional units, an assessment inventory (LCCE Inventory), and an inservice training program so school personnel can be trained to implement the program and design their transitional efforts around it.

The EES materials are consistent with the competencies and subcompetencies of the occupational domain of the LCCE Curriculum. Recently developed and validated in rehabiliation settings by the Arkansas Research and Training Center in Vocational Rehabilitation, the EES assessment and instructional materials have been incorporated in the LCCE occupational domain (Roessler, Johnson, & Schriner, 1988). The EES materials include assessment measures and training packages which address on-the-job social/interpersonal skills; vocational coping skills; vocational exploration, decision-making, and choice-making skills; and job seeking skills. Published materials for each of these critical employability skill areas include a teacher's manual, student's workbook, audio and video instructional tapes, and related printed materials. Together the products form a complete curriculum for developing important elements of a student's work personality.

Overview of Project

Several school districts are working with the universities of Missouri-Columbia and Arkansas to demonstrate the LCCE/EES

LIFE-CENTERED CAREER EDUCATION (LCCE) CURRICULUM (Revised 1/87)

Curriculum Area	Competency	Subcompetency: The student will be able to:						
DAILY LIVING SKILLS	1. Managing Personal Finances	1. Count money & make correct change	2. Make reasonable expenditures	3. Keep basic financial records	4. Calculate & pay taxes	5. Use credit responsibly	6. Use banking services	
	2. Selecting & Managing a Household	7. Maintain home environment	8. Use basic appliances and tools	9. Select adequate housing	10. Set up household	11. Maintain home grounds		
	3. Caring for Personal Needs	12. Demonstrate knowledge of physical fitness, nutrition & weight	13. Exhibit proper grooming & hygiene	14. Dress appropriately	15. Demonstrate knowledge of common illness, prevention & treatment	16. Practice personal safety		
	4. Raising Children & Meeting Marriage Responsibilities	17. Demonstrate physical care for raising children	18. Know psychological aspects of raising children	19. Demonstrate marriage responsibilities				
	5. Buying, Preparing & Consuming Food	20. Purchase food	21. Clean food preparation areas	22. Store food	23. Prepare meals	24. Demonstrate appropriate eating habits	25. Plan eat balanced meals	
	6. Buying & Caring for Clothing	26. Wash/clean clothing	27. Purchase clothing	28. Iron, mend & store clothing				
	7. Exhibiting Responsible Citizenship	29. Demonstrate knowledge of civil rights & responsibilities	30. Know nature of local, state & federal governments	31. Demonstrate knowledge of the law & ability to follow the law	32. Demonstrate knowledge of citizen rights & responsibilities			
	8. Utilizing Recreational Facilities & Engaging in Leisure	33. Demonstrate knowledge of available community resources	34. Choose & plan activities	35. Demonstrate knowledge of the value of recreation	36. Engage in group & individual activities	37. Plan vacation time		
	9. Getting Around the Community	38. Demonstrate knowledge of traffic rules & safety	39. Demonstrate knowledge & use of various means of transportation	40. Find way around the community	41. Drive a car			
PERSONAL-SOCIAL SKILLS	10. Achieving Self Awareness	42. Identify physical & psychological needs	43. Identify interests & abilities	44. Identify emotions	45. Demonstrate knowledge of physical self			
	11. Acquiring Self Confidence	46. Express feelings of self-worth	47. Describe others perception of self	48. Accept & give praise	49. Accept & give criticism	50. Develop confidence in oneself		
	12. Achieving Socially Responsible Behavior	51. Develop respect for the rights & properties of others	52. Recognize authority & follow instructions	53. Demonstrate appropriate behavior in public places	54. Know important character traits	55. Recognize personal roles		
	13. Maintaining Good Interpersonal Skills	56. Demonstrate listening & responding skills	57. Establish & maintain close relationships	58. Make & maintain friendships				
	14. Achieving Independence	59. Strive toward self-actualization	60. Demonstrate self-organization	61. Demonstrate awareness of how one's behavior affects others				
	15. Making Adequate Decisions	62. Locate & utilize sources of assistance	63. Anticipate consequences	64. Develop & evaluate alternatives	65. Recognize nature of a problem	66. Develop goal seeking behavior		
	16. Communicating with Others	67. Recognize & respond to emergency situations	68. Communicate with understanding	69. Know subtleties of communication				
OCCUPATIONAL GUIDANCE AND PREPARATION	17. Knowing & Exploring Occupational Possibilities	70. Identify remunerative aspects of work	71. Locate sources of occupational & training information	72. Identify personal values met through work	73. Identify societal values met through work	74. Classify jobs into occupational categories	75. Investigate local occupational & training opportunities	
	18. Selecting & Planning Occupational Choices	76. Make realistic occupational choices	77. Identify requirements of appropriate & available jobs	78. Identify occupational aptitudes	79. Identify major occupational interests	80. Identify major occupational needs		
	19. Exhibiting Appropriate Work Habits & Behavior	81. Follow directions & observe regulations	82. Recognize importance of attendance & punctuality	83. Recognize importance of supervision	84. Demonstrate knowledge of occupational safety	85. Work with others	86. Meet demands for quality work	87. Work at a satisfactory rate
	20. Seeking, Securing & Maintaining Employment	88. Search for a job	89. Apply for a job	90. Interview for a job	91. Know how to maintain post-schools occupational adjustment	92. Demonstrate knowledge of competitive standards	93. Know how to adjust to changes in employment	
	21. Exhibiting Sufficient Physical-Manual Skills	94. Demonstrate stamina & endurance	95. Demonstrate satisfactory balance & coordination	96. Demonstrate manual dexterity	97. Demonstrate sensory discrimination			
	22. Obtaining Specific Occupational Skills			There are no specific subcompetencies as they depend on skill being taught				

Figure 1

© Career Development Projects
D. E. Brolin, Ph.D.
Director

Brolin, D.E., (1989). Life-Centered Career Education: A competency based approach (3rd ed.). Reston, VA: The Council for Exceptional Children.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI-COLUMBIA
111 Townsend Hall
Columbia, MO 65211
(314) 882-7775

materials with students who have intellectual and specific learning disabilities. The purpose of this 4-year federally-funded project is to identify practical strategies for implementing the LCCE/EES curriculum in other school districts and to determine whether the curriculum contributes to more successful adult outcome for students. The project's final products will be (a) a comprehensive curriculum-based assessment package entitled the LCCE Inventory (knowledge and performance batteries), (b) a comprehensive set of LCCE Instructional Units (97), and (c) an implementation guide for organizing, planning, conducting, and evaluating the LCCE Curriculum Program.

The LCCE/EES Project involves six field-sites (Bolivar, MO; Brainerd/Aitkin, MN: Joplin, MO: Richmond, CA; St. Cloud, MN; and Branch, AR) in developing and field-testing the LCCE/EES curricula methodologies. Project elements to be evaluated include assessment and implementation strategies, an inservice training program, a cross-agency training program, and a service delivery monitoring system. Each field-site appointed a coordinator and LCCE Team (teachers, administrators, parents, and community agency personnel) to work closely with project staff in designing and implementing the various activities of the project. Subjects for the study include equal numbers of MMH or SLD sophomores, juniors, and seniors, 15-30 project students in each of the six field sites.

During the first project year the Field-Site Coordinator and LCCE Team determined the contextual barriers to implementing the innovation (LCCE/EES Curricula), suggested ways to resolve the barriers, and involved school personnel in critiquing implementation plans. Additional first year field site activities included (a) revision of LCCE/EES instructional and assessment materials, (b) modification of project materials into a workable model, (c) administration of the twelfth grade control group assessment, (d) development of the LCCE/EES teacher training program, and (e) periodic meetings with project staff. Project years two through four involve the field-sites in implementing the innovation which includes student assessment, instruction, and post-testing upon graduation. Follow-up studies with the graduated groups (1988, 1989, & 1990) on post-school community living and working adjustment will be conducted during the summer of each year of the project.

Assessment

The first of two major implementation activities involves assessing students' LCCE competency attainment using the LCCE Inventory. Designed to accompany the Life-Centered Career Education Curriculum, the LCCE Inventory is a curriculum-based assessment instrument measuring the career education knowledge and skills of special education students. It is composed of a Knowledge Battery and a Performance Battery that are appropriate for assessing the career education knowledge and skills of special education students classified as Educable Mentally Handicapped (EMH) or Specific Learning Disabled (SLD). Prepared

for secondary students, grades 7-12, the Inventory provides data that assist teachers in determining students' competency levels and their instructional needs in 21 of the 22 competency areas of the LCCE Curriculum. Inventory results also pertain to the objectives and goals in the students' Individualized Education Programs (IEP). Through use of the LCCE Inventory, teachers are able to monitor the progress of students in mastering the instruction in each of the LCCE Curriculum competency areas.

Teachers may choose to use the two LCCE batteries in a number of different ways, depending on the teacher's instructional and evaluation style, students' needs, the time and resources available, and the skills being taught. The various methods for using the Inventory are explained in greater detail in the User's Guide found in the LCCE Curriculum Guide. For example, the primary purpose of the Inventory is to enable teachers to determine whether or not students have mastered needed skills. This is chiefly a diagnostic function for individual students. In addition, the Inventory allows teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of specific instructional units for an entire class.

The Knowledge and the Performance Batteries make it possible to evaluate both the information possessed by students and the career education skills they can demonstrate. Hence, the instructional goals identified from assessment results address indepth educational needs of a particular student. Two batteries were developed because knowledge is not always a valid predictor of a student's ability to perform needed skills. All the subcompetencies of the LCCE Curriculum are tested in the Performance Battery. The Knowledge Battery does not evaluate seven of the ninety-seven subcompetencies. Because they contain strictly performance skills, subcompetencies #10, #11, #81, #94, #95, #96, and #97 are evaluated on the Performance Battery but not on the Knowledge Battery.

Knowledge Battery. The Knowledge Battery is a two form standardized criterion-referenced instrument (Form A & B) developed for 7th to 12th grade EMH and SLD students in special education. Each form uses 400 objective questions to assess a student's knowledge in 20 critical life competency areas (20 items per competency). The Knowledge Battery consists of 3 parts (Daily Living, Personal-Social, & Occupational) covering 20 of the 22 competencies. Competency #21 and Competency #22 are not assessed in terms of knowledge because they stress the demonstration of manual and specific occupational skills.

The Knowledge Battery was developed by using the instructional objectives of the LCCE Curriculum as guidelines for the test items. Representing the important content areas of the curriculum, the instructional objectives provide the basis for the development of test items that comprehensively treat each subcompetency area. Depending on the number and ability level of the examinees, each form (A and B) requires from four to five hours to administer. The Knowledge Battery is designed for

small to medium size group administration (5-15 students). When larger groups are tested, even using proctors, the resulting scores are likely to be lower and less accurate estimates of the students' true skills. This effect of group size is particularly noticeable with EMH students.

Items should be presented to examinees both verbally by the examiner and in written form in the test booklet. Verbal presentation is recommended because the reading skills of examinees may vary above and below the fourth grade reading level, the level at which the Battery was written.

Performance Battery. The Performance Battery is currently being standardized through field-testing in the LCCE/EES project. Through its 21 tests, the Performance Battery assesses each of the subcompetencies of 21 of the 22 competency areas. Each of the tests in the Performance Battery specify: (a) the materials needed for assessment; (b) directions to the evaluator; and (c) directions to the student. In addition, a score sheet lists the performance tasks to be evaluated as well as the criteria for determining mastery. Some performance tests can be administered to groups of students, while others require individual administration. Because Competency 22 addresses a wide range of specific occupational skills, it is not included in the Performance Battery.

Student Assessment. Each field-site coordinator administered the LCCE Knowledge Battery to all project sophomores, juniors, and seniors in the Fall of 1988. For the purposes of the study, Performance tests were administered only when the students mastered the parallel Knowledge Battery competency tests (17+ correct out of 20).

After administration of the LCCE Inventory, scores were transferred to the Student Competency Assessment Record (SCAR) which profiles the student's test results on all competency tests for both the Knowledge and Performance Batteries. The last column (Mastery Level) of the SCAR indicates the level of mastery attained for each competency. If a student meets the criterion on both tests for a competency, he/she receives a M (Mastery). If the criterion is met on only one test, the student receives a P (Partial mastery). If the criterion is not met on either test, the student is given a N (Not mastered). The SCAR clearly represents the student's status relative to the LCCE Competencies which is valuable information for development of the Individualized Education Program (IEP).

Instruction

The second major implementation activity is the instructional component of the project. Instruction involves the use of the 97 LCCE Instructional Units developed to cover all the skills for the LCCE/EES Curriculum. These units were written in part by teachers and have been extensively reviewed by experts in the field. Each unit includes (a) a comprehensive introduc-

tion discussing important teaching considerations, (b) lesson plans for three career education stages (awareness, exploration, and preparation), and (c) lesson plan evaluations. Each lesson plan contains activities for one or more of the subcompetency objectives that students need to master. The units have incorporated educational and training experiences in school, home, and community settings.

Instructional needs for each subject in the study are determined from the results listed on the SCAR. Project students receive competency (all subcompetency units) instruction for the competencies they either did not or partially mastered. The remaining years of the project are devoted to determining the impact of the instruction on the career education skills and life outcomes of students in the demonstration school districts.

Findings

Data are currently being gathered on the impact of LCCE/EES curriculum on the students in the six demonstration school districts. During an earlier stage of the project, considerable effort was devoted to a study of the barriers encountered in implementing a career education curriculum. These barriers were identified first in terms of the current literature on career education (Roessler, 1988) and secondly from the results of a strategic planning interview conducted by project staff with the LCCE teams in each of the participating school districts (Loyd, Roessler, & Brolin, 1989).

Results of the barriers investigations indicated that many supporting systems and materials are required to improve career education in secondary school settings. For example, measures are needed to assess student instructional needs, and planning documents are required that encourage the selection of employment and life skill related educational goals for students. Attention must also be paid to the extent that students generalize their classroom career education training to living and working environments outside of the school. Finally, support of career education goals by school administrators, family members, social agencies and employers is essential.

Implementation

All LCCE Team teachers in each field-site received inservice training prior to the intervention component of the research project. This one day training program introduced the teachers to the instructional materials (units), instructional management planning strategies, instructional evaluation techniques, instructional monitoring process, and follow-up procedures. Important elements of the LCCE/EES teacher training program are presented in the ACRES Rural Special Education Teachers' Institute.

REFERENCES

Bellamy, T. (1985). Transition progress: Comments on Hasazi, Gordon, & Roe. Exceptional Children. 51(61), 474-477.

Brolin, D.E. (1989). Life-Centered Career Education: A competency based approach (3rd ed.). Reston, VA: The Council for Exceptional Children.

Brolin, D.E., Loyd, R.J., & Roessler, R.T. (1989). Implementing life-centered career education: A study of contextual barriers & implementation recommendations. Research Report #1 (unpublished).

Elrod, F. & Lyons, S. (1987). A nation at risk or a policy at risk. Career Development for Exceptional Individuals, 10(1), 10-14.

Roessler, R.T. (1988 in press). Implementing career education: Barriers and potential solutions. Career Development Quarterly.

Roessler, R., Johnson, V., & Schriner, K. (1988). Enhancement of the work personality: A transition priority. Journal of Applied Rehabilitation Counseling, 19(1), 3-7.

COMMUNICATION GAMES

Barbara Luetke-Stahlman, Ph.D.

Communication Games

Communication games are an effective way to entice deaf individuals to try new forms of language. These games enable students to develop specific language skills in an enjoyable way, yet are designed so that the basic elements of language can be practiced. Students have fun without realizing they are becoming familiar with grammar, syntax, semantic, and usage.

The challenge for teachers is to design communication games that appeal to students yet achieve identifiable goals. Four basic games adhere to a basic pattern and objective. They can be altered to meet the individual needs of students and can be used to practice sppech or sign.

The communication game teaching strategy has been taught successfully to itinerant teachers working individually with language delayed or disordered students in rural Illionis. The games utilize stimulus materials that are highly flexible, making the games of interest to students of any age.

Barrier games.

Two players have identical sets of stimuli and are separated by a barrier. One player is designated as the leader. His/her objective is to issue a series of one-step commands to the other player. For example, "Put the balloon under the ball." The leader's challenge is to use prepositions in a manner such that the directions can be followed.

The second player is the partner. His/her objective is to respond correctly to the leader's one-step commands. (Remember, peeking over the barrier is not permitted.) The partner's goal is to arrange the items in a pattern identical to the leader's.

Teachers may need initially to model the leader's role for the players. After a student has assumed the role of leader and given the commands, the partner should be permitted to verify directions or check

information. Students play until all the objects are placed. The barrier is removed and displays are checked for accuracy. You can help players by identifying any incorrect placements and repeating the original requests.

A variation of the game uses street maps or maps of states or countries instead of objects. The leader's assignment is to route the partner from one location to another. As part of the game, the leader must use vocabulary the teacher has integrated into the game map. (For example, rename streets using words from the students' vocabulary list.) Once the leader has directed the partner from a starting to an ending point, the barrier is removed and the results discussed. Roles are reversed and the game is repeated.

Another variation of the barrier game is to have students decorate identical cookie faces with different colored frostings. They can practice using color words or naming the parts of the face. To encourage students to practice shape words and prepositions, give them identical sets of shapes and challenge them to arrange them in identical patterns.

You can offer players a twist in the barrier game by purposely giving them slightly different sets of objects. As a result, opportunities for questioning abound. "What did you say?" "I don't have that," or similar requests are a natural consequence of the alteration and add another dimension to the activity.

The Hiding Game.

The hiding game is also played in pairs. The teacher identifies one player as the hider and the other as the finder. The players use a set of cups under which are hidden small objects or cards. The cups can be similar

or can differ in size or color. Place the cups between the two players. Supply the hider with a set of items or vocabulary words or speech sounds on small cards. The object of the game is for the finder to locate the hidden items or cards by asking questions.

To begin, the finder closes his/her eyes while the objects or cards are hidden. The teacher can model the players' roles to explain the procedure. The hider asks the finder to locate an object--"Find the toy car." The finder must determine the hiding place through questioning--"Is the car under the blue cup?" or "Blue cup--car?" But the finder must use language to question.

Variations of the game can include hiding objects inside other objects, on a person's body, or in a location around the room. In the latter case, the hider must come back and tell the finder where the object is hidden. Then the finder must locate it. If the finder comes back empty-handed, it is obvious the hider needs to rephrase or reemphasize information. The farther the object is from the finder (i.e., context-reduced), the greater is the demand for language comprehension and communication.

As the ultimate hiding game challenge, use three players. Player 1 hides an object or vocabulary card while the other players close their eyes. Player 1 then tells Player 2 where the object is hidden (while Player 3 keeps his or her eyes closed). Player 2 then tells Player 3 where the object is hidden,and Player 3 is expected to find it. Using written directions, created by Player 1 and rewritten by Player 2 for Player 3, adds

yet another dimension to this basic hiding game--and promotes students' writing skills.

The Describing Game.

The describing game is played in teams. The teacher prepares by drawing some simple pictures that students can easily re-draw, and that describe key vocabulary or word relationships (e.g., a clown in a circle, or a shoe on a box by a bed).

To begin the game, teams sit together with pencils and paper an equal distance from the teacher. One member of each group is designated as the runner. On signal, the runners rush to the teacher, who shows them a picture and explains its content. When the teacher signals again the runners rush back to their groups and describe the picture. Runners are not permitted to draw or point; they must use only language to describe. To win, all members of a team must accurately copy the teacher's picture. New runners are chosen and the game goes on until each student has been a runner.

A variation of the game includes filing a paper bag with various small objects. The runners race to the teacher, who selects one runner to reach in the bag, pick an object (unseen by the others), and describe it to the other runners. Then the teacher signals again, and the runners return to their teams to describe the object. Team members take turns asking questions; the team to name the object first wins.

The Telephone Game

For this game, group students in several rows. The teacher identifies one player as leader in each group. He/she prepares brief, written messages

on cards: give each leader a card. The teacher then asks the leaders to read the message and repeat it to the person on their right (without the others watching). That person must then relay the message to the next person in the same manner and so on down the line, until the message reaches the last student in the row. That student comes back to the leader and writes down the message.

The challenge is to pass an accurate message. The fun is to see how much the message changes in the process. If you emphasize good articulation, whether in sign, speech, or both, students will strive for accurate communication as they pass the message along.

A variation of the game is to divide students into several teams. One player from each team stands at the board, ready to write down vocabulary words or short sentences. The other students stand in a row behind him/her. The last student in each row is the leader and faces the teacher; all the other students face the player at the blackboard.

To start the game, simultaneously give a message to each of the leaders facing you. The leaders can clarify the message if necessary; then they are to turn to the player standing with his or her back to them, tap that person's shoulder, and relay the message. That player clarifies the message, taps the next player's shoulder, and repeats the message. The game continues until the message has traveled down the line of students and has been written on the board. All players continue to face the blackboard until they are tapped. The teacher waits until the leaders in each row have sent a message before sending another message. But teachers can send messages as fast as the teams can handle them. This keeps everyone communicating. After the teacher has sent eight or ten sentences, compare the words or sentences listed on the board for accuracy.

It is gratifying to see how easily communication games hold students interest. And regardless of how you combine them, they offer an excellent supplement to language arts activities.

3goals.bls

Three Goals for Teachers: Asking Comprehensible Questions of Language Delayed Students

Barbara Luetke-Stahlman, Ph.D.
Dept. of Educational Psychology, Counseling, and Special Education
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb, IL 60115-2854

ACRES Conference Proceedings

Three Goals for Teachers: Asking Comprehensible Questions of Language Delayed Students

Questioning is one of the most popular techniques used by teachers for skill exercising (Barry, 1987). Teachers can signal questions with WH-words (e.g., who, what, how), noun-verb reversal (e.g., Can you come to group now?), or with raised intonation (e.g., This one? The pencil? OK?). A student's response to such queries can maintain a conversation or satisfy the teacher that desired knowledge of an event, object, or process has been acquired. Does failure to response to questioning mean a student doesn't "know the answer?" Three concepts for consideration, aimed at increasing successful comprehension of teachers' questions by language delayed learners are discussed in this paper.

1. In 50 classrooms in which language samples from teachers were videotaped, teachers used all three types of questioning strategies define above. WH-questions were used most often, followed by reversal questions. Queries marked by intonation-only were used least often.

In situations where sign is used to augment speech, question forms should be signed in a manner that corresponds closely with speech and signals students that a question has been asked. Luetke-Stahlman (in press) found in analyzing language samples of teachers simultaneously communicating in the classroom to hearing-impaired students that questions were not always signed so that the question form was coded. WH-questions were encoded 85% of the time, reversals 80% of the time, and intonation-only forms 75% of time by teachers using Seeing Essential

English and Signing Exact English. These percentages, by question type, were much lower (i.e. 57%, 50%, and 33%) for teachers using Signed/ Manual English and Pidgin Signed English. In addition, the signed question marker was used to make unmarked questions comprehensible to students who could not hear the teacher's intonation only in 32% of all samples. Hearing-impaired children, many of whom do not have an age-appropriate grasp of the English language, also may not realize that Wh-words and inverted word order signal questions. Therefore, teachers should be careful to make question forms comprehensible to students. Goals can be set by teachers to completely say, or say and sign, questions (and use the signed question marker as appropriate) with language-delayed students.

Question prompts (adapted from Moeller and McConkey, 1984) can help language-delayed students understand the nature of the question being asked and can be used in conjunction with Bloom's cognitive taxonomy (Bloom & Krathwohl, 1977). These prompts appear in Table 1 and provide teachers with alternatives to repeating questions numerous times and finally telling students the answer.

Insert Table 1 about here

Standard focusing phrase with repetition. Sometimes a teacher asks a student a question the student does not realize that an answer is expected. This prompt calls attention to the demands of the situation and is analogous to a "listening set" in auditory training. You are overtly saying, "listen to my question."

Exaggeration of the interrogative. In this category you use the

relevant question word at a place in the interrogative where it can be emphasized.

Multiple choice. If a student cannot answer your question, it may be helpful to provide a cloze set of possible answers. We suggest that you give at least three different answers for selection. Also be careful to randomly alter the placement of the correct response so the student does not depend on it's location (e.g., always the last choice) as a clue.

Relevant comparison. In using the strategy of relevant comparison you provide the student with part of a possible listing of information that is needed to answer your question. The information you provide should not always be accurate.

Visualization. Visualizations can link content to verbal (signed or spoken) description. A visualization provides a student with a cognitive crutch with which to discuss the desired information.

Model with related content. A model provides students with the grammatical form of an answer so that they can concentrate on the content of what is being discussed. If a student does not answer a question or answers it incorrectly, you can ask an adult or another student the same question. After a model of the desired answer has been given, ask the first student a similar question, one that uses the same grammatical form, but which is about slightly different content.

Analogous example. When a student cannot respond to your question, it may be helpful to provide him/her with an analogous situation. This prompt gives the student an opportunity to think about a concept or process without being told the very information you are trying to ascertain.

These prompts have proven helpful in teaching hearing-impaired students of all ages and who possess various degrees of hearing loss. Educators are encouraged to set a goal for themselves to incorporate at least three of these prompts into each lesson.

2. Teachers should ask questions in a pace and manner that provides opportunities for students to practice cognitive operations. Allowing the student ample time to respond, having them paraphrase other

students' questions, and having students discuss, form, and ask questions to peers about academic material have been suggested as strategies that increase hearing students' question comprehension (Barry, 1987).

Significant adults can use the prompts to ask both closed and open questions. Closed questions have a specific answer; open questions could have many answers. Teachers should be cognizant of asking questions of older students which require them to evaluate, judge, synthesize, predict, etc. (the higher Bloom and Krathwohl, 1977, skills). For example, a teacher might ask a student to compare the Civil War with World War I using a visualization. The student might use descriptions that compare the two events or descriptions that contrast the two events. But to require the student to encode more complex meanings, the teacher might then ask the student to make a prediction about a future war or evaluate what was beneficial about the two wars being reviewed. This open-ended question will stimulate the use of connectives such as "and," "because," and "but." The use of open-ended questions provide opportunities for students to use more complex language (Bloom & Lahey, 1978).

An example of how these strategies might be used to encourage hearing impaired students to find relationships, make inferences, and draw conclusions (i.e., synthesis) appears in Table 2. Educators are encouraged to set a goal for themselves to ask one cognitively-challenging question of each student during each lesson.

Insert Table 2 about here

---

3. Cognitively challenging questions can be task analyzed by using a language proficiency matrix described by Cummins (1984). This matrix consists of two continua that intersect, forming four quadrants. The continuum of context moves from left to right; the continuum of cognition moves from bottom to top. In Table 3, the cognitive taxonomy

---

Insert Table 3 about here

---

of Bloom and Krathwohl (1977) has been placed on this vertical axis. A similar, helpful summary of question levels appears in Table 4.

Insert Table 4 about here

Research by author has indicated the classroom teachers (and parents, as well) often ask questions which can be characterized as context embedded, cognitively undemanding (e.g. What's this? Do you need a pencil?). Yet, the importance of asking context-reduced, cognitive-demanding questions has been linked to literacy and success by Aschner (1961) Frager (1986) Hyman (1979) Winne (1977) McNamara (1981). Educators are encouraged to set a goal for temselves to use the Cummins model to task analyze their questions to students and be systematic in their use of various forms

By setting goals for themselves as question-askers, teachers (and parents) may be able to change how well and how often language-impaired

children answer their questions. Longer conversations and confidence that students understand targeted concepts could be the outcome of this effort.

References

Aschner, M. (1961). Asking questions to trigger thinking. NEA Journal, 50, 44-46. Barry, B. (1987). Practical strategies for the teaching of thinking. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Bloom, B. S., & Krathwohl, D. R. (1977). Taxonomy of educational objectives: Handbook I. New York: Longman Publishers.

Cummins, J. (1984)

Frager, A. (1986). How can we improve teacher questioning? A good question. Reading improvement, 23(2), 145-151.

Hyman, R.T. (1979). Strategic questioning. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

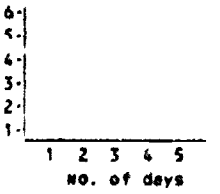
Luetke-Stahlman, B. (in preparation). An empirical investigation of teachers' use of questions in bimodal, academic contexts.

McNamara, D. (February, 1981) Teaching skill: The question of questioning. Educational Research, 23(2), 104-109.

Moeller, M. P., & McConkey, A. (1984). Language intervention with preschool deaf children: A cognitive/linguistic approach. In W. H. Perkins (Ed.), Current therapy of communication disorders (pp. 11-27). New York: Thieme-Stratton, Inc.

Winne, P.H. (1979). Experiments relating to teachers' use of higher cognitive questions to student achievement. Review of Educational Research, 49(1), 13-49.

Table 1 **Examination of Question Prompt Effectiveness**
Work by Moeller, Eccarius, Renninger, Bryski, and Luetke-Stahlman.

Question Prompt Type	Strategy Description Preschool	Math	Spelling	World History/ Social Studies	Science
Standard focusing phrase with repetition	"Listen to the question" signals the student that his/her response was in error. Direct his/her attention to the repetition; highlights.	"Listen to the question." How many <u>boys</u> are in <u>this</u> classroom?	"Listen to the question." How many <u>syllables</u> are in the word <u>buttercup</u>?"	"Listen to the question." what <u>year</u> did Columbus sail?	"Listen to the question." At what <u>degree</u> does <u>boil</u>?
		In all of the examples, the question was asked first and the student's response was incorrect. The question is repeated emphasizing key words.			
Sequence	What day is this? Monday, Tuesday, _____?				
Listing	Who is in your family? Mom, Dad, _____?				
Exaggeration of the interrogative	Which of these coats belongs to Hannah? vs. I have three coats. <u>Which one</u> is Hannah's?	"When we keep track of accounts in our check books, we can either add or subtract our money. If I am depositing money, <u>what operation</u> do I use?"	"I know you know how to spell cat! <u>How</u> do you spell cat?"	"There are 7 continents in the world. <u>Which one</u> does the United States <u>belong to</u>?"	"Water boils at a certain temperature? <u>what</u> temperature does water boil at?"
Multiple Choice	"What animals are near extinction?" No response. "Which is near extinction, cow, gorilla, or pig?" Allow for recognition of relevant information.	"How do you find the area of a circle?" No response. "Is the formula, length x width or x radius squared, or x the ? distance?	"What is a noun?" No response. "Does a noun name a person, place or thing, show an action, or describe a verb?	"What is the name of a communist country?" No response. "Which is communist, the United States, Russia, or France?"	"Name a mammal." No response. "Which is a mammal: a monkey, a frog, or a butterfly?"
Relevant Comparison Yes/No	"What does a hockey player need? No response. "Does a hockey player need skates?" "Yes!" "Good!" What else does he need?"	"What are the multiples of 3, up to 21?" No response. Is 10 a multiple of 3?" "No." "Good, what are the multiples of 3?"	"Does jump follow the 1+1+1 rule? No response. "Does jump have 1 syllable? "Yes." "Good." "Does jump have 1 vowel?' "Yes." "Great." "Does jump have 1 final consonant?" "No." "Wonderful." "Does jump follow the 1+1+1 rule?	When looking at a map, what states does the Mississippi River touch?" No response. "Does it touch Illinois?" "Yes" "What states does the Mississippi touch?	"What are the parts of an atom?" No response. "Are electrons parts of atoms?" "Yes" "Good, what are parts of an atom?"
Visualization of Relationships	"How are an apple and a cookie alike? No response. Draw a semantic feature chart. bakes eat grows on tree apple + + + cookie + + -	1 + 2 = 3 0 1 2 3 4 5 6	"Does jump follow the 1+1+1 rule?" No response. 1 syl. 1 vowel 1 final consonant hop + + + thump + + + stop + + + 1+1+1 rule = 1 syllable, 1 vowel, 1 final consonant for doubling the final consonant before -ed & -ing.	"Which states have more people?" 	Histogram Graph: Growing Plants 
Model example with related content	Mary Pattie, where is your aid? No response. Breeze, where is your aid? Good. Mary Pattie where is your lunch box?	"Debbie, how many inches in a foot?" Respond incorrectly. "Jane, how many inches in a foot?" "12" "Excellent." "Debbie how many inches in 1/2 of a foot?" "6" "Great job!"	"Cathy Jo how do you spell receive?" "Receive!" "Janice, how do you spell <u>receive</u>?" Spells it correctly. "Good!" "Cathy Jo how do you spell deceive?" Spells it with the ei correct. "Wonderful!"	"Joe, what are three branches of government?" Wrong response. "Timmy, what are the 3 branches?" Timmy responds. "Good!" "Joe, which branch is made up of the laws?" Joe responds. "Excellent"	"Marcy, how can you measure the volume of some solid?" Answers incorrectly. "Kent, same question." Answers correctly. "Marcy, what does water displacement measure?" "Volume."
Analogous Examples	"What are alligators covered with?" No response. "Seals are covered with fur. What are alligators covered with?"	"How much is 1+2?" No response. "2+1=3, how much is 1+2?"	"Do you drop the 'a' before adding -ing in the word shape?" No response. "You drop the 'e' before adding -ing in the word care--caring." "Do you drop the 'e' before adding -ing in share?"	What continent is east of Europe?" No response. "Africa is south of Europe. What continent is east of Europe?"	"What does your digestive system do? No response. "Your circulatory system moves blood through your body. What does your digestive system do?"

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 2

Using the question prompt strategies to increase students ability to synthesize information

Standard focusing:	Listen to the question: Why was the pig who built the brick house rewarded for his hard work?
Exaggeration of the interrogative:	Tell me a new ending for the story? How could the "Three Pigs" end in a different way?
Visualization:	Which materials would make good houses?

	easy to locate	can build in short time	will keep dangerous animals out	can have fireplace
brick				
straw				
sticks				
concrete				
snow				

Model with related content:	Hannah, what kind of house do you think the pig with the straw house will build next time? No response. Ask Breeze the same question and get correct answer. Hannah, what kind of house do you think the pig with the stick house will build next time?
Analogous example:	Valerie, brick kept the wolf out. What do you think about a cement house? Would that work as well as brick for the pigs?

Table 3

Context and cognitive requirements of question comprehension.

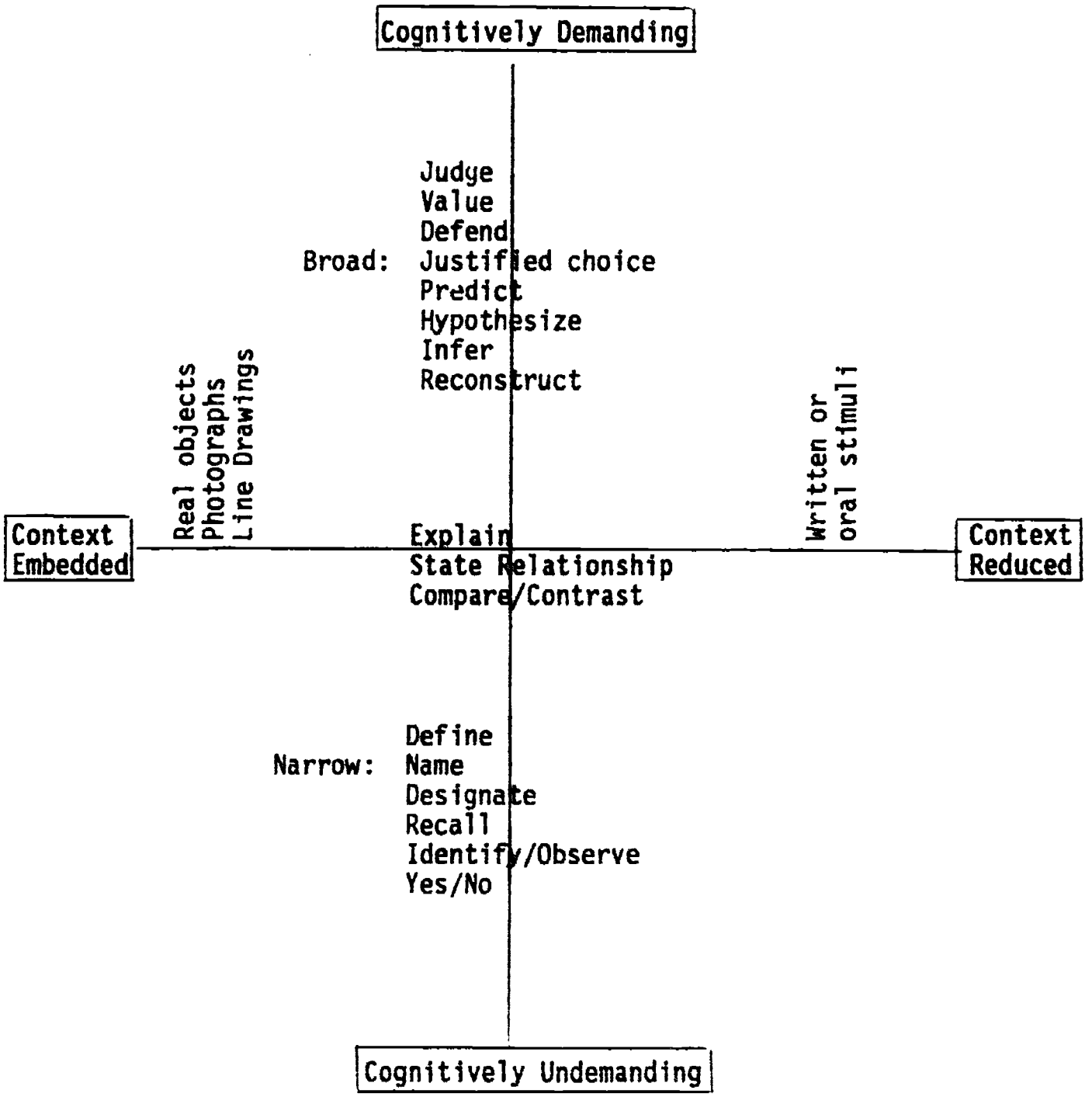


Table 4

Summary of Question Levels

Question Level	Brief Description	Key Words
Memory	Recall or recognition of facts	Who, what, where, How many Is, are, were Why
Translation	Change information into another symbolic form	Retell Draw a picture
Interpretation	Discover relationships	Compare/contrast What reason/evidence Describe Rearrange events
Application	Solve life-like problems using known information (only one answer is correct)	What would happen if What other reasons What would you do if Compute . . . How does . . . affect
Analysis	Give reasons based on parts	What will happen What is the purpose Find evidence Why Conclude
Synthesis	Use imagination to solve the problem	What would you do if Pretend What ways might Develop a story Hypothesize
Evaluation	Establish standards and determine how ideas meet them	Should Justify your choice Do you agree . . . Why

Adapted from Meehan, 1970

Jonathan C. McIntire
David B. Barnes

Public Law 94-142: A time to Re-Examine

Public Law 94-142 and its antecedent legislation, Public Law 89-313, were significant to establish the Civil rights of handicapped children and their parents. Why then so many years after its implementation is the system not working well? The most obvious answer usually given is that the money needed to deliver the system has, in part, dried up and dreamed about programs have never been fully implemented or established. This view is a simplistic one assuming that all problems in education can be solved by additional funds rather than looking at the core difficulties of what has, in fact, happened. From the author's point of view the major problems of having an efficient and effective method of service delivery have little to do with funds. One of the major problems, in serving children with special needs, has always been teacher attitude. (Current legislation has not helped change teacher attitude significantly, but has simply created in most places two parallel school systems, one called regular education and one called special education.) This has not improved teacher attitude toward the acceptance of handicapped children in their classroom. Many teachers do reluctantly accept children with special needs in their regular classroom, however, many do not consider them their students. Often curricular modifications are made because it is required on the I.E.P. and evaluation procedures are modified only if required to do so by administration.

The proliferation of so called "experts" in special education has allowed regular classroom teachers to abdicate much responsibility concerning students who formerly would have been totally in their charge. The middle ground has not been established but the pendulum has swung from one extreme to the other. Some of the cause of this lack of accepting responsibility has not been the fault of the regular classroom teacher but has been promoted by special educators, this is especially true in many states that have opted for the teacher consultant model. There is nothing inherently wrong with this model, however, (rather than recruiting experienced classroom teachers who have demonstrated an ability to modify curriculum, to accept children with special needs to diversify their teaching strategies and modify their assessment procedures. However, rather than hire these proven teachers new training programs were established all over the country in colleges and universities to take people with no teaching background and train them to be consultants. It is this lack of credibility that the teacher consultant model has brought to

many areas and has further divided regular and special education in the United States. Consultants have continually requested teachers to do things that they did not know how to do and that the consultants themselves were unable to demonstrate and properly assist the teachers in making necessary modifications.

A further reason for the division of regular and special education has been a duel system of administration where the Superintendent and the Principals administered the regular education program and curriculum and a whole new set of administrators, supervisors, and consultants were brought in to administer special education programs.

It is indeed paradoxical in a system where one of the requirements was to place children in the least restrictive environment we have a proliferation of deficit labeling of children. That not only is a segregating feature but often is inaccurate and used against the child in his educational pursuits.

With all of the data collected over the past decade it would be indeed simple to look at the incidence of a variety of handicaps and globally fund school districts from all levels based on a percentage of the cost for developing appropriate educational programs for the incidence of children having those handicaps. This system has been demonstrated to work effectively in other countries and has led to the creation of many fine and unique programs. In addition it has led to increased integration of children with special needs into regular educational programs.

Perhaps the greatest difficult with the labeling, however, occurs in the area of learning disabilities. This is mainly due to the number and variety of definitions of learning disabilities and the inability of legislators and bureaucrats to develop appropriate identification procedures. Most specifically in this field the total reliance on standardized tests and the so called "discrepancy formulas" have made the labelling of these children a farce. A child is learning disabled in one state but not in another. Because of discrepancy formulas we have not developed adequate early identification programs where a child's unique learning style can be serviced prior to failure. Also, it has caused a proliferation of children with visual/spatial problems not being identified as learning disabled but after a few years of failure some of the children are given the much more devastating label of being emotionally handicapped or disturbed. It has also created an over-proliferation of children having mild to moderate auditory/verbal processing difficulties who become labeled severely learning disabled. This has left the door wide open for educational decisions to be made by lawyers on the basis of independent evaluations by psychologists who

well know which standardized tests will give the greatest discrepancy for labeling children in the category of greatest need. Winning due process hearings have placed these same children in the most restrictive environment possible, which is a private residential facility away from home, family, friends and community. It seems ridiculous that in one state a town of less than 5000 population can have the public school system paying for 10% of the residential placements in the entire state.

The entire identification and assessment procedure must be re-examined. It is often at a written evaluation and eligibility determination meeting, that parents are alienated and filled with mistrust about the system. This is primarily due to the fact that rather than a variety of individuals who have completed assessments on the child sharing ideas with classroom teachers and parents they have presented the findings of their tests as though they were gospel truth and have attempted to overwhelm parents by presenting a united front, which may give the appearance that critical decisions have already been made. This is a far cry from the intent of a variety of professionals sitting down with parents and classroom teachers discussing a child's strengths and needs and the most appropriate strategies and programs to implement with that child which was, of course, the intent of the legislation.

One of the great difficulties has been "territorialism". The concept of a multi-disciplinary evaluation was designed to ensure looking at the whole child, however, only too often the child is being dissected and only the professional with the proper label is able to comment about a particular aspect of a child's functional ability. For example, in many school systems no one other than the speech-language pathologist would dare comment about a child's language ability yet parents and teachers have been observing this for long periods of time. What is needed to really service the child is for all of these professionals to lend their expertise and for all of them to share in discussing the whole child, as well as, abilities and needs in their own area of expertise.

Often the most difficult aspect for a child is not placement into special education, but in many areas once a child is placed there is very little chance of ever getting out. This is in part due to the fact that time spent out of the classroom in a resource room is not considered by the classroom teacher as a valid reason for not completing the regular classroom curriculum and assignments. Often a child with special needs is required to do more work than other students in the class and much of this work is well beyond the child's capabilities. As a result of this, many children rather than being instructed in skills so that they might be able to better cope in the regular classroom are

instead tutored in their regular classrooom work so that they can survive throughout the school year. Even in schools and districts where learning specialists or resource teachers work along with students in their regular classroom without withdrawing them, there is often not a coordinated program of two professionals team teaching but an isolated section of the room for a tutor and slow kids to work.

In many areas the least progress that has been made in the past decade has been in integration or mainstreaming of students with special needs into the least restrictive environment. Many districts have made very little attempt to do meaningful integration because of the fear of teachers and the lack of a well planned support system for them. Other systems have made administrative decisions that all children will be mainstreamed but have not supplied the necessary back-up support for regular classroom teachers to deal with atypical students in their classrooms for the first time.

It is indeed ironic that a decade after the passage of Public Law 94-142, in many states and communities, one cannot find a child in a wheelchair, a cerebral palsy child, a hearing impaired child, a visually impaired child, or a Downs syndrome child in the regular school system. In many areas these children are still in public supported private facilities or state institutions. In addition to this many schools have not developed a philosophy as to why mainstreaming is an important benefit for all concerned.

The authors discussing the many problems that have come with the implementation of Public Law 94-142 in no way negate its importance in the development of services for handicapped children and their parents. They are, however, being realistic in pointing out many of the areas that need close examination and in order for the legislation to meet its original purposes. There needs to be a major overhauling in procedures and practices. States, school districts, schools and individuals must develop a philosophy of education that is more than words on paper, a philosophy that is workable and one that they can implement. If practices are not in line with philosophy and policy statements then, in effect, you have no philosophy.

We need evaluation, rethinking, and appropriate planning to deliver the services that were dreamed of when the federal government passed legislation guaranteeing the educational rights of handicapped children. Hopefully when the second decade of Public Law 94-142 comes to its conclusion we will see a system in place that allows for early identification and appropriate programming for children without having to classify them with deficit labels. That would enable professionals and parents to openly and honestly discuss a child with special needs and to cooperatively plan a program

based on their mutual trust of each other rather than having children's programs determined in the legal arena. Can we even "dare to dream" that our public schools can have services developed and accommodations made to service the needs of all children whose parents live within their catchment area.

If these things are to be accomplished we as educators must dedicate ourselves to promoting these ideals in all arenas at all levels.

Academic Achievement in America's Small Schools: Data From High School and Beyond

Walter G. McIntire
Scott F. Marion
Center for Research and Evaluation
College of Education
University of Maine
Orono, Maine 04469

Paper prepared for the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium Annual Meeting, Fort Lauderdale, FL. March 8-10, 1989

RC017306

Academic Achievement in America's Small Schools: Data From High School and Beyond

Walter G. McIntire
Scott F. Marion
Center for Research and Evaluation
College of Education
Shibles Hall
University of Maine
Orono, Maine 04469

Consolidation of small, rural schools and districts has been one of the most actively and successfully implemented educational policies of the twentieth century. Virtually all rural districts have been through at least one or more rounds of consolidation efforts. The conventional wisdom of mid-century educational policymakers was that bigger was better and more economical. Some of the most common rationalizations for closing small schools was that students in a single large school could be better served by more specialized teachers and more up-to-date materials,and more and better equipment and facilities could be provided for the students and staff. The realities of consolidation have often not lived up to expectations of the policymakers or rural communities. Larger schools have not always proved to be as economical as expected, and the quality of education, often, has not improved to the extent predicted by advocates of consolidation (Sher and Tompkins, 1976).

It is difficult to separate the issues of expenditures and efficiency from any discussion of schools, especially rural schools. The drive for economically efficient rural school systems led the move for consolidation. Policymakers argued that by pooling resources, students in rural communities would be offered comprehensive educational programs unaffordable to smaller districts. It was also said that, a larger percentage of the budget could be spent on educational programs instead of building overhead and administrative costs (Sher, 1981). An unfortunate characteristic of rural communities is that they tend to be the poorest community type (Sher, 1981). Over 14 million people rural U.S. citizens live in poverty (Nachtigal, 1982). As most educators know, this single characteristic can have a tremendous impact on an educational system and the students' it serves. It is easy to see why consolidation supporters were able to convince rural communities to reorganize; the promise of a better (i.e. more expensive) education for their children was too attractive an offer to refuse.

A review of consolidation literature noted that ranges of 293 to 2,000 pupils were reported as optimum sizes for high school cost effectiveness. However, the same paper suggested that an optimum cost-effective size for high schools ranged between 1500-1800 pupils (ERIC, 1982). But, because of the diversity of rural communities, measures of central tendency are practically useless. Sher and Tompkins (1976) reviewed the existing literature related to school and district consolidation and concluded that while there might be some financial benefits to consolidation, claims of fiscal efficiency had been greatly exaggerated by proponents of reorganization.

Most of the studies of the effects of school and district reorganization have concentrated on financial matters; the academic results of consolidation have only recently come under scrutiny. Although policymakers promised improved academic performance as an outcome of consolidation, but in a review of 14 major studies, Sher and Tompkins (1976 p.26) reported, "In fact, of the recent, controlled studies, there is not a single one which records a consistent, positive correlation between size and achievement, independent of IQ and social class." Unfortunately, it is unclear if these studies produced consistent negative relationships between achievement and school size.

Several studies have investigated the relationship between school and/or district size and student achievement (Barker and Gump, 1964; Kiesling, 1968; Eberts, et al., 1984, Walberg and Fowler, 1987) while either experimentally or statistically controlling for important mediating variables such as socioeconomic status (SES), ability, and per pupil expenditures. The positive relationship between SES and achievement has been well documented in the educational and psychological literature (White, 1982; Shanahan and Walberg, 1985; Walberg and Fowler, 1987; Coladarci and McIntire, 1988). White's extensive review (1982)

reported that almost all of the 620 correlations yielded by the 200 studies analyzed produced positive associations with academic achievement. Walberg and Fowler (1987) reported a "strong, consistent positive relationship between SES and achievement" in their analysis of over 500 New Jersey school districts, and in a study comparing the ability and achievement levels of rural, suburban, and urban high school students from a national data base, Coladarci and McIntire (1988) reported that SES accounted for the major proportion of variance in three measures of ability and three measures of achievement.

Eberts, et al. (1984) and Walberg and Fowler (1987) reported negative associations between school size and student achievement , and in Ebert's study the negative correlation was much greater when comparing moderate (400-599 pupils/school) to large (over 800 pupils/school) schools, than when comparing small (less than 200 pupils/school) to moderately sized schools. Neither of these studies focused on rural areas, but as Sher (1981) suggested, important influential factors such as SES tend to have much greater impacts on achievement than where the school is located.

The need for empirical research examining the academic effects of consolidation and other important rural education issues has been the subject of several recent reviews (Helge, 1986; DeYoung, 1987; Swanson, 1988). Helge (1986) performed a cluster analysis with data from a national survey of rural educators to establish an empirically determined national rural education research agenda. She reported that rural school effectiveness emerged as the top cluster. Results of a poll of the research and executive committees of the Rural Education Association in 1983 noted that of the nine most pressing needs for rural education research, rural school effectiveness was judged to be the most important (cited in DeYoung, 1987).

DeYoung's (1987) extensive literature review stressed the need for better empirical data base studies to help researchers and policy makers begin to understand the nature of rural education. Coladarci and McIntire (1988) used a nationally representative data base to begin to explore some of the issues of rural school effectiveness. While they found few differences as a result of school setting, they suggested that future research examine the differences among rural schools and try to identify the school-level characteristics that account for these differences. Sher (1981) had also suggested that only comparing rural and urban differences is inappropriate and misleading; examining different types of schools within the same setting would prove to be more productive.

The major purpose of this paper was to examine the differences, while controlling for SES, in educational outcomes for students from small, average, and large rural schools. Small school outcomes were also compared across context (urban, suburban, and rural) with SES controlled. The contribution of gender to academic outcomes was also investigated.

Method

The Data Set

We employed the sophomore sub-sample of the High School and Beyond (HSB) data base, a nationally representative sample of high school students in 1980, most of whom were surveyed again in 1982, 1984, and 1986 (National Opinion Research Center 1987). In the 1980 cohort, students were selected through a two-stage, stratified probability sample with schools as the first stage sampling units and students as the second stage. There were 1015 schools selected for the sample, and 36 seniors and 36 sophomores were randomly selected within each school. In those schools with fewer than 36 seniors and/or sophomores, all eligible students were included in the sample. The subjects in our study were drawn from those students participating in all four waves of the survey. There were 13425 students participating in all four waves of this survey, of which 3141 were from rural CIC census regions. All analyses were conducted with modified HSB sampling weights in effect. Certain groups were over-sampled during the 1980 base-year survey and due to the non-random nature of the follow-up surveys; the National Center for Educational Statistics suggests that whenever inferential statistics and tests of significance are performed using HSB data, the weighting procedure should be employed (National Opinion Research Center, chap. 3, 1987). In order to preserve an accurate, but proportionally correct, sample size, the weight was divided by a mean weight to produce the weighting measure used in this study.

Subjects

In the first analysis comparing small schools (fewer than 300 students) across contexts, 138 students (12.8%) were from urban high schools, 266 (24.6%) were from suburban high schools, and 680 (62.7%) were from rural schools. Of the students used in this weighted analysis, 518 (47.8%) were male and 566 (52.2%) were female.

In the second analysis, comparing schools within rural regions, 535 (29.9%) were from small (fewer than 300 students) high schools, 729 (40.7%) students were from average (400-700 pupils) size school, and 528 (29.5%) students were from large (900-1200 students) high schools. In this sample 895 (49.9%) were females and 897 (50.1%) were male. Eberts, et al. (1984) found a strong negative relationship between achievement and school size as size moved from 400 students per school to over 800. Others (Sher, 1981; Walberg and Fowler, 1987; DeYoung, 1987; Swanson, 1988) have also suggested that there is a strong decline in educational effectiveness at the higher levels of school and district size. We decided to restrict our analysis to schools of 1200 students or less because if schools with fewer than 300 students were reorganized, it is unlikely that the resulting schools would be much larger than 1200 students.

Variables

SPSSX statistical software (SPSS, 1988) was used to carry out both the descriptive and inferential statistical procedures. The variables were drawn directly from the HSB data. Socioeconomic status is a HSB-created composite based on five components: 1) father's occupation, 2) father's education, 3) mother's education 4) family income, and 5) material possessions in the household (i.e. personal calculator, 50 or more books, place to study, etc.). The socioeconomic composite is the simple average of the non-missing components from the 1980 survey, after each of the five scores has been standardized.

The six achievement variables from the 1980 survey were the percent correct on a 21-item vocabulary test, a 19-item reading test, a 20-item science test, a 17-item writing test, a 10-item civics test, and the average score of the 28-item and 10-item math tests. For a more detailed discussion of these tests see Heyns and Hilton (1982).

The educational aspirations variable was taken from a single 1982 item "As things stand now, how far in school do you think you will get?", with choices ranging from "less than high school graduation" to "Ph.D., M.D., or other advanced professional degree".

The educational attainment variable was drawn from the 1986 survey and reflects the highest level of education achieved by the respondent. Choices are similar to those for the educational aspirations variable described above.

Results

Means, standard deviations, ranges, and intercorrelations are reported in Tables 1 and 4. In both cases, high positive correlations (r=.48 to .70) were found among the six achievement variables. The intercorrelations among SES, aspirations, and educational attainment were positive and fairly strong (r=.25 to .46) in both samples, and the correlations among each of these three variables with the achievement measures were consistently positive (r=.23 to .51).

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

Insert Table 1 about here

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

Coladarci and McIntire (1988) suggested that with large sample sizes, merely examining the statistical significance of the explained variance is inappropriate. Rather, they suggest that the Sum of Squares associated with each source (covariate, main effects, and interaction) be reported as a proportion of the total Sum of Squares. This issue is easily observed in Tables 2 and 5; it was statistically significant (alpha=0.05) if only 0.01% of the variance in the dependent measures was explained by the covariate or one of the main effects, but this could hardly be considered substantively significant. Using this method of reporting findings, the results of our analysis are presented below.

The Relationship of Context, Gender, and SES to Educational Outcomes in Small Schools

The relative contributions of SES, context, and gender for explaining variability in the performance of students from small schools on eight dependent measures were assessed. A three (context) by two (gender) analysis of covariance with SES as the covariate was conducted (see Table 2).

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

Insert Table 2 about here

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

Socioeconomic status (SES) explained far more variance in the dependent measures than either of the main effects (context or gender) or the interaction term (context X gender). As can be seen in Table 2, SES explained between 10 and 20% of the variability in all of the dependent measures except Civics and Educational Attainment, where approximately 6.5% of the variance was explained by SES. Writing was the only dependent measure where one of the main effects (gender) explained a noticeable amount of variability. In all other cases, context, gender, or the interaction of context and gender explained little to no variability in the dependent measures.

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

Insert Table 3 about here

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

Table 3 further illustrates the negligible influence of the main effects upon the dependent measures with SES controlled. There were only minor differences in the educational outcomes among students from small schools as a result of the school setting. Gender differences in small schools were minor, except on the writing and science measures. Females scored on the average over 12% higher on the writing measures, while the mean score for males was 3% higher on the science test. Females in small schools had approximately 8% higher levels of educational aspirations.

The Relationship of School Size, Gender, and SES to Educational Outcomes in Rural Schools

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

Insert Table 4 about here

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

The relative contributions of SES, school size, and gender to the explanation of educational outcomes of students in rural schools on eight dependent measures were calculated using a three (school size) by two (gender) analysis of covariance with SES as the covariate (see Table 5).

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

Insert Table 5 about here

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

Socioeconomic status (SES) explained far more variance in the dependent measures than either of the main effect (school size or gender) or the interaction term (school size X gender). SES explained between 10 and 17% of the variability in all of the dependent measures except Civics and Educational Attainment, where approximately 5.5% of the variance was explained by SES. Writing was the only dependent measure where one of the main effects (gender) explained as much variability as SES. In all other cases, context, gender, or the interaction of context and gender explained little to no variability in the dependent measures.

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

Insert Table 6 about here

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

The mean scores of the dependent variables after they have been adjusted for SES and the other main effect are presented in Table 6. . Gender differences in small schools were minor, except on the writing and science measures. Females scored on the average over 15% higher on the writing measures, while the mean score for males was approximately 2.5% higher on the science test. Females in rural schools had approximately 10% higher levels of educational aspirations. There were minor, but consistent, differences in the educational outcomes among students from rural schools of various sizes. In all cases, except for Math, students from small

(less than 300 students) high schools had higher mean scores on the dependent measures than students from the moderately sized (400-700 students) schools, or the large (900-1200 students) schools, and students from moderately sized high schools had higher or equivalent mean scores than students from large schools on all of the dependent variables. While these differences were small, the consistency of the pattern is striking.

Conclusions

Our analyses continue to illustrate the importance of the relationship of socioeconomic status to educational outcomes. SES accounted for considerably more variance in student performance than did either of the main effects or the interaction terms on the eight dependent measures used in our study. The results of our analysis of student achievement in small schools across context substantiated the results reported by Coladarci and McIntire (1988). In these contextual analyses, the unadjusted scores generally favor the higher SES urban and suburban schools, but in both studies, once SES was controlled, negligible differences in academic outcomes due to urbanicity were found. It would be fruitful to use the High School and Beyond Data Base in future research to examine school-level differences within urban and suburban contexts as well.

The minor effect of gender in our analyses supports the conclusions of much of the recent research relative to gender differences in academic outcomes (Chipman, 1988; Coladarci and McIntire, 1988; Marion, 1988). The large gender difference on the writing scores though, is deserving of further attention.

• The results of this study point out some interesting differences among rural schools of various sizes, corroborating the general findings previously reported (Eberts, et.al, 1987; Walberg and Fowler, 1987). As in Ebert's(1984) study, the differences between moderate and large schools were larger than those between small and moderately sized schools. Unlike these results, Walberg and Fowler (1987) reported that district size accounted for a significant amount of variance in student achievement. One explanation for this difference is that district size in their study ranged from a low of 36 to a high of 56,294 students, whereas our study investigated only schools with fewer than 1200 students. The greater variability in school and/or district size in Walberg and Fowler's (1987) study increased the possibility of statistically significant results, with all other factors being similar.

Kiesling (1968) also reported a negative relationship between school size and achievement with SES, ability, and expenditures controlled, but without any controls he found that achievement increased up to approximately 1400 pupils per school. In our preliminary investigations, we found a slight positive correlation (r=0.04) between SES and school size, but students from smaller schools in our sample still had higher unadjusted mean scores on almost all of the achievement measures. We considered using ability (vocabulary scores in this case) as a covariate, but the correlation between vocabulary and school size was so low (r= -0.002), that its use as a covariate would be pointless.

Several educational researchers and supporters (notably Barker, Sher, and Nachtigal) feel that the benefits of small schools, once understood and appreciated, may provide models for educational excellence (DeYoung, 1987). The use of large-scale empirical data bases, like High School and Beyond, will help policymakers begin to understand small, rural schools and will help educational researchers develop working notions for future research.

There appears to be a policy shift taking place, largely as a result of public pressure, to support rural education initiatives. The reasons are varied, but there appears to be increasing dissatisfaction with consolidation policies, a renewed respect for rural models, and pressure for educational equality (Sher, 1981a). The traditional rural school is increasingly viewed as a primary source of community pride and identity. The family-like environment found in most small, rural schools is unique and something to be cherished. Small schools are integral parts of the communities they serve and are believed to enhance students' feelings of self-worth and civic pride. To describe only the instructional side of a small school does not do it justice, for much of what makes rural schools special is what happens outside the classroom. Future research to help identify and explain the effects of these less tangible characteristics of small schools is clearly needed.

References

Barker, R., and Gump, P. (1964). *Big school, small school.* Stanford, CA. Stanford University Press.

Coladarci and McIntire (1988). Gender, urbanicity, and ability. *Research in Rural Education,* 5(1), 13-15.

Chipman, S.F. (1988). Far too sexy a topic: [Review of *The psychology of gender differences*]. *Educational Researcher,* 17(3), 46-49.

DeYoung, Alan J. (1987). The status of American rural education research: An integrated review and commentary. *Review of Educational Research,* 57(2), 123-148.

Helge, Doris (1986). Establishing an empirically determined national rural education research Agenda. *Research in Rural Education* , 3(3), 99-105.

Heyns, B. and Hilton, T.L. (1982). The cognitive tests for High School and Beyond: An assessment. *Sociology of Education,* 55, 89-102

Kiesling, Herbert J. (1968). High school size and cost factors. Report of U.S. DHEW Project No. 6-1590. Washington, DC.

Marion, Scott F. (1988). Gender differences in selecting undergraduate science majors. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the New England Educational Research Organization. Rockport, ME. April 21-23.

Nachtigal, Paul (1982). Education in Rural America: An Overview. In: Nachtigal, Paul (ed.) *Rural Education: In Search of a Better Way* (pp. 3-14). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.

Shanahan, T. and Walberg, H.J. (1985). Productive influences on high school student achievement. *Journal of Educational Research,* 78(6), 357-363.

Sher, Jonathan P. (1981a). Education in the Countryside: Establishing the Context. In: Sher, J.P. (ed.) *Rural Education in Urbanized Nations: Issues and Innovations* (pp. 3-20). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc..

Sher, Jonathan P. (1981b). Education in the Countryside: Overview of Conditions. In: Sher, J.P. (ed.) *Rural Education in Urbanized Nations: Issues and Innovations* (pp. 21-75). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.

Sher, Jonathan P. and Tompkins, R.B. (1976). Economy, efficiency, and equality: The myths of rural school and district consolidation. National Institute of Education. Washington, DC. 49 p.

Swanson, Austin D. (1988). The matter of size: A review of the research on relationships between school and district size, pupil achievement and cost. *Research in Rural Education,* 5(2), 1-8.

White, K.R. (1982). The relation between socioeconomic status and academic achievement. *Psychological Bulletin,* 91(3), 461-481.

TABLE 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations. Comparison of small schools across context.

	Variables	Mean	SD	Range	Correlation Coefficients (a)							
					1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	SES	-0.1	0.8	4.4								
2.	Ed. Attainment	2.3	1.0	4.0	.2549							
3.	Vocabulary	51.8	21.4	95.2	.4416	.3194						
4.	Reading	49.2	20.5	100.0	.3539	.2805	.7000					
5.	Math	47.1	18.4	90.0	.3695	.3305	.5886	.6254				
6.	Science	55.7	18.6	95.0	.3813	.2826	.6448	.6910	.5928			
7.	Writing	62.5	23.6	94.1	.3299	.2690	.5852	.6573	.6237	.5801		
8.	Civics	58.3	20.1	100.0	.2563	.2922	.5682	.5910	.4785	.5616	.5503	
9.	Ed. Aspirations	4.0	1.6	6.0	.4580	.3558	.4759	.4403	.5062	.3794	.4496	.3634

(a) All correlation coefficients are statistically significant (alpha=0.05).

TABLE 2

Percent of Total Sum of Squares Accounted for by SES, Context, Gender, and the Interaction of Context and Gender.

Variable	SES	Main Effects		Interaction
		Context	Gender	Context X Gender
Math	13.65	0.00	0.00	0.01
Vocabulary	19.50	0.00	0.00	0.01
Reading	12.52	0.00	0.00	0.01
Writing	10.88	0.00	7.40	1.10
Science	14.54	0.01	0.01	0.01
Civics	6.57	0.00	0.00	0.01
Ed. Attainment	6.50	0.00	0.00	0.00
Ed. Aspirations	20.98	1.29	1.06	0.00

Note: All percents greater than or equal to 0.01 are statistically significant (alpha=0.05)

TABLE 3

Adjusted Means for High Schools with less than 300 students.

Variable	Urban	Suburban	Rural	Male	Female
Math	46.81	47.60	47.38	47.27	47.27
Vocabulary	54.62	52.56	51.31	51.86	51.87
Reading	49.87	48.23	49.87	49.29	49.63
Writing	64.63	61.31	63.10	56.13	68.98
Science	53.48	54.03	57.10	57.55	54.54
Civics	59.80	57.26	58.89	58.58	59.51
Ed. Attainment	2.19	2.41	2.34	2.28	2.40
Ed. Aspirations	4.40	4.15	3.90	3.86	4.18

Note: Each mean is adjusted for SES and the other main effect.

TABLE 4

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations. Comparison of different sized rural schools.

	Variable	Mean	SD	Range	Correlation Coefficients (a) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	SES	-0.2	0.7	4.2								
2.	Ed. Attainment	2.3	1.0	4.0	.2260							
3.	Vocabulary	49.3	20.0	100.0	.3924	.2465						
4.	Reading	47.5	20.2	100.0	.3594	.2383	.6755					
5.	Math	46.3	18.3	94.6	.3833	.3259	.5776	.6300				
6.	Science	55.2	18.5	100.0	.3756	.2542	.6433	.6684	.6171			
7.	Writing	60.0	23.1	94.1	.3244	.2467	.6026	.6365	.6082	.5964		
8.	Civics	57.0	20.6	100.0	.2407	.2228	.5404	.5547	.4834	.5456	.5674	
9.	Ed. Aspirations	4.7	2.4	4.0	.4167	.3682	.4133	.4527	.4724	.3990	.4502	.3692

(a) All correlation coefficients are statistically significant (alpha=0.05)

TABLE 5
Percent of Total Sum of Squares Accounted for by SES, School Size, Gender, and the Interaction of School Size and Gender.

Variable	SES	Main Effects		Interaction
		School Size	Gender	School Size X Gender
Math	14.69	0.00	0.00	0.00
Vocabulary	15.40	0.00	0.00	0.00
Reading	12.92	0.00	0.00	0.00
Writing	10.53	0.00	10.56	0.00
Science	14.11	0.00	0.01	0.00
Civics	5.79	0.00	1.22	0.00
Ed. Attainment	5.11	0.00	0.00	0.00
Ed. Aspirations	17.36	0.00	1.13	0.00

Note: Percents exceeding 0.01% are statistically significant (alpha=.05).

TABLE 6
Adjusted Means for Three Different Sized Rural High Schools.

Variable	School Size (pupils/High School)			Male	Female
	LT 300	400-700	900-1200		
Math	46.47	46.82	46.57	46.73	46.56
Vocabulary	50.03	49.76	48.97	49.11	50.10
Reading	48.87	48.31	46.16	46.96	48.72
Writing	61.82	60.53	59.32	52.97	67.96
Science	56.12	55.63	54.98	56.83	54.38
Civics	58.13	57.70	56.44	55.18	59.69
Ed. Attainment	2.30	2.31	2.31	2.28	2.34
Ed. Aspirations	4.75	4.72	4.70	4.47	4.97

Note: Each mean is adjusted for SES and the other main effect.

Dean K. McIntosh, Associate Professor
Gail I. Raymond, Assistant Professor
Program for Exceptional Children
Department of Educational Psychology
College of Education
University of South Carolina
Columbia, SC. 29208

RURAL MILDLY HANDICAPPED STUDENTS IN THE LEAST RESTRICTIVE ENVIRONMENT: IMPLICATIONS FOR IDENTIFICATION AND INTERVENTION

The fact that there is a critical shortage of qualified special education teachers throughout every state has been heavily documented. If urban and suburban school systems have difficulty recruiting and retaining special education teachers, then isolated rural areas will typically have even more difficulty. Many states now have designated special education as an official "critical needs area", and are beginning to provide financial assistance to teachers already in the field who will take coursework and/or degree programs that will lead to certification in any of the areas of special education. In addition, the assistance provided will be forgiven by the state on a variety of plans, such as each year of teaching in a special education assignment will reduce the amount to be repaid by 20% or 25%. Even with such incentives, many positions continue to remain unfilled.

The shortage of teachers in rural areas can be the result of a number of factors. Among these is geographical distance from any college or university, which makes continuing education relatively inaccessible for rural teachers. Most teachers new to the field have a desire to continue their education beyond the bachelor's degree, and prefer to begin soon after beginning their first teaching assignments. Lack of facilities to do so certainly deters applicants from applying to specific school districts.

An addition problem is that administrators in many rural school districts have given special education a very low priority in both funding and administrative support. A prospective candidate may quickly shy away from a situation in which he/she is the only special education teacher in the school and/or surrounding area, or in a district which employs a very limited number of special educators and there is no clearly designated director of special services.

One result of these critical shortages is that many mildly handicapped students remain unidentified and/or inadequately served. There is obviously a need for additional teachers who

possess special education skills to work in rural areas to provide services to this group of students in the the most appropriate educational environment. This does not always infer that there must necessarily be more special education teachers, but more teachers with special education skills. This is an approach which has not been utilized by many school districts, as far too often the emphasis is placed on the employment of fully certified special education teachers who will be exclusively special education teachers only. If no such teachers are available, the positions remain unfilled and the students are then unserved, underserved, or not identified. None of these approaches seem in the best interest of the handicapped student.

Obviously, a model must be developed and implemented that will allow the optimum utilization of the personnel resources in the school and system. Foremost, special educators are going to have to develop skills that will allow them to work more closely with regular educators, and they in turn, must gain skills that are normally now placed within the purvue of the special educator. This is, in reality, what the regular/special education initiative is really all about. This will require very close collaboration between and among regular and special educators in developing a master plan that will meet the needs of rural students experiencing mild learning and/or behavioral problems.

As previously mentioned, rural school districts often have limited numbers of special educators available in any school system, limited financial resources, and schools with very small populations isolated from the larger schools or/or district offices. All of these limitations point to the need for the regular educator in the schools to gain skills needed for the diagnosis and remediation of mildly handicapped students. This can best be accomplished in two ways. One is through formal coursework provided through colleges and universities and encouraged and financially supported by the school district. The second is by utilizing those special education teachers already employed in the system who can assist regular educators in gaining additional skills needed in their particular classroom settings.

ASSESSMENT

Assessment serves a variety of purposes. In most instances, the first level of assessment is the screening of students to determine if there is indeed a problem, and if further evaluation is warranted. Screening is normally done by classroom teachers, utilizing a combination of both informal and formal assessment techniques that have been specifically designed to be utilized by teachers rather than psychologists.

Should a problem be documented at the screening level, the next level is that of determining eligibility. This is normally done in most states by "certified" personnel, such as evaluators,

school psychologists, etc., whose specific role is that of diagnosis and labelling. At this level the more formal standardised tests are utilised, including individually administered tests of intelligence, standardised achievement tests, and possibly some projective techniques. This assessment is standardised in most states because of the requirements in PL 94-142, and very specific state regulations.

The third stage of assessment, and probably by far the most important and on-going, is that of assessment for program planning. Generally a student is initially referred because he/she is having problems progressing in the regular curriculum as provided by the school district. After the assessment has been completed, it still remains the responsibility of the regular and special education teachers to determine how to provide remediation to the student in the classroom setting. It is often at this level that criterion referenced testing, informal assessment, and on-going classroom activities make up the majority of the assessment procedures.

Far too often, however, this is where the system begins to break down. Regardless of the plan of action, the regular educator sees the major remedial responsibilities belonging to the special educator, while the special educator sees the regular educator as having the responsibility for providing on-going remediation in the regular classroom. When this happens, the student suffers, for there is no continuum of services being provided. Labelling too often divides up responsibilities for the education of the student, rather than providing a workable remedial program.

It becomes especially critical when a student is screened and evaluated, only to be found not eligible for special education services. At that point it is highly possible no remedial services will be provided, as the regular educator does not have the time or skills to provide them, and the special educator has not been made responsible for the student. Obviously, it would be much better if the student who is suspected to be mildly handicapped could receive the combined diagnostic and remedial services of both the regular and special educator before any referral procedures are implemented. It is highly possible combining of these resources would eliminate the necessity for further referral as remediation could take place within the regular classroom setting.

Ideally both the regular and special education teacher should work together at the pre-screening level to try to determine the extent and depth of the problem of the student in question. If this could be done in a collaborative manner, utilizing all the appropriate instruments, such as informal assessment, criterion referenced assessment and curriculum based assessment, many of the students in question could receive the proper remediation without the necessity of screening and referral. When this is accomplished, the number of mildly handicapped students referred for assessment and placement would

be reduced appreciable. At the same time the special educator would be able to concentrate efforts on those students truly in need of special education services who are moderately to severely learning and behaviorally handicapped. Often the problem is that the curriculum does not meet the needs of individual students within the classroom. When the regular educator can develop the additional skills needed to appropriately modify the curriculum to meet these individual needs, then many of the suspected learning and behavioral problems will be eliminated.

INTERVENTION

Intervention of mildly handicapped students in rural areas needs to be both practical and sound. It must be practical from the point that a great portion of the intervention must be done by the regular classroom teacher because there may not be a special education class within the school or within a reasonable driving distance. It must be sound in that if the regular educator is to provide the remediation it must have a pedagogical base that allows it to be implemented within the classroom and integrated into the classroom setting.

Skill deficiencies in lower grades are different from those in the upper grades. The teacher must first determine, in the intervention stages, specifically where the student is functioning in order to gear the intervention appropriately. For example, the lower levels reading consists of initial phonics, writing letter formation, and literal translation of the written word. Math consist of learning facts, basic computation and gaining the basic skills. At the middle grades (4-6) the emphasis centers on inferential aspects of reading, on the subject matter being taught, and written language becomes more expressive. Oral length and complexity are areas of concern. Reading at this level has moved from decoding to comprehension. Math is now concerned with word problems, and the utilizing of the basic number facts in a variety of ways throughout subject matter areas.

Obviously, a teacher who assesses a student placed in the fourth grade classroom only to find first and second grade skills are missing has no alternative but to take the student back to those skill areas in order to teach them. It then becomes evident that remediation on the part of the regular classroom teacher, if it is to be curriculum-based, must span far more than one or two grade levels. Since intervention is tied to assessment, the teacher must move to prerequisite skills assessment if they are found missing in the initial evaluation. For students to receive appropriate remediation the classroom teacher must provide those basic skills interventions. It is at this point that the special education teacher should be invaluable in assisting in the planning and implementation of such a program. It is imperative that the remediation be based upon the curriculum used within the school. This means these materials must be adapted to the individual student needs if they

are to be useful. The special education teacher, or consultant, should be able to provide a great deal of assistance and input. But, the total process should be that of assisting the regular educator in gaining additional skills which will help her/him not only now but in the future with other students who are going to need basic skills remediation. The whole idea is that of a learning process for the teacher and the student, as well as for the special educator. Additional skills gained to be used with one student should certainly be transferable to another student in a similar situation. Specific learning strategies for the student's instructional level is the key to success at the intervention level.

COLLABORATION

Collaboration is much easier said that done. The basic concept is that the regular and special educator work together to provide the remediation and programming needed in order to to maintain the mild handicapped child in the regular classroom. This model presumes that with each student, first an attempt to is made remediation within the regular classroom setting, and only if that does not produce success is the student referred for further evaluation and possible special education placement. Both teachers will benefit from such a model. For the regular educator it means the gaining of additional skills which can be used in the future with other students with like problems. It also means that immediate intervention can be begun by not having to wait until the referral process is complete. In some rural areas there may be an inordinate length of time from first contact with the parents regarding the possibility of referral to when the placement is completed. It also means that the student will not have to be removed from the regular classroom, or very possibly transported to a school some distance away. It also, and probably most importantly, gives the regular educator a sense of accomplishment and dignity, knowing that a student who previously would have been referred and possibly labelled is being remediated in the regular classroom setting.

For the special educator, probably most importantly, it means that a student who really does not need special education services will not be taking the place of one who has a much more severe problems. It also helps to reduce the amount of referrals and consequently the caseload, giving the special educator much more valuable time with those students who have the more severe problems. It also allows the special educator to share skills and competencies with regular educators which can only enhance the total learning situation. This is especially so if the regular educator has students in his/her class that are in resource room for part of the day, but for the majority of the day are in the regular classroom setting.

Such a collaborative effort takes time and effort on the part of both the regular and special educator. It also requires that there be administrative support at both the school and

district office level. It is not an easy alternative, nor it is a "cheap" method of serving students who should be in a resource or self contained setting. It is one more additional method of meeting the needs of the mildly handicapped students in a least restrictive, yet appropriate, setting.

A variety of collaborative efforts can be attempted. One is for the regular and special educator work together in the school setting, assuming that there is a full-time special educator in the school. A second is for the special educator to be a consultant, and travel from school to school working with regular educators. A third method, and one that has a great deal of merit, is to provide intensive special education training to regular educators who will remain regular educators in the schools. They will, however, be consultants to other teachers who have handicapped students in their classroom. This method allows better communication, for regular educators are communicating with regular educators. It can be implemented in a school in which a special education teacher assignment cannot be justified, but still allows for an "in house" consultant to be available at all times to teachers, staff and administration.

SUMMARY

Serving mildly handicapped students in rural areas becomes a very difficult problem to solve. Often there are not enough students in one school to warrant a special educator being assigned. However, it may be many miles to the nearest school which will entail an inordinate length of travel each day on the bus. One solution is to have specific regular educators receive the training necessary to become their own in-school consultants and provide service to other regular educators.

Any model of service to the mildly handicapped must include a well thought-out plan of assessment and intervention. These two must be very closely tied together. The assessment must be curriculum-based and able to be conducted by the regular educator. In turn, intervention must also be curriculum-based and carried out in the regular classroom setting. The assessment and intervention both must be designed so as to determine which, if any, of the basic skills may be missing from, or deficit in, a student's educational experience. A plan for must be formulated for developing these skills. It means that assessment must be much encompass more than one to two grade levels. It must begin with first grade and continue up to the student's present level of functioning. To develop assessment in any other way will surely doom the intervention because it will no be directed toward the true problem areas of the student.

While assessment and intervention are both difficult to conduct in the classroom, a consultation model will alleviate some of the difficulties. A person within the school who has the training and expertise to work with mildly handicapped students can provide assistance to every teacher in the school. Such

assistance not only helps remediate the problem at hand, but also gives the cooperating teachers new and additional areas of expertise which can be used with other students who are having learning and behavioral problems.

Paper presented to:
The Ninth Annual Conference of the American Council on
Rural Special Education (ACRES)/National Rural and Small Schools Consortium (NRACC)

Education and the Changing Rural Community: Anticipating the 21st Century

Delivery of Training and Technical Assistance to Rural Local Educational Agencies: The Special Education Technical Assistance Centers at Virginia Tech

John A. McLaughlin
Cyndi B. Roberts
Wemme E. Walls
Institute for the Study of Exceptionalities
Virginia Tech
College of Education
103 Jackson Street
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061
(703) 961-5167

Providing appropriate services to our Nation's special needs populations and their families has been a priority since the early 70's. The revolution in the education of learners with handicaps has resulted in extraordinary changes in the educational service delivery system. Revisions driven by legislative, judicial and administrative mandates have impacted not only on how and where we teach these learners, but also on staff development for those responsible for providing services to learners with handicaps.

It has been said that while legislative, judicial and administrative initiatives were important to the success of the revolution - APPROPRIATE EDUCATION FOR ALL LEARNERS WITH HANDICAPS - there is nothing more important than the availability of trained professionals to fill instructional, support and administrative roles. Fulfilling these personnel needs can be accomplished on two fronts-preservice and inservice. The presentation addresses the needs of professionals in the field who are or may be associated with providing special education and related services to learners in Southwest Virginia, including administrators, special education and regular education teachers, and ancillary/support staff. The purpose of this paper is to introduce the Southwest Virginia technical assistance efforts with emphasis on the specific issues related to the separate components and how they particularly address the primarily rural catchment area.

The Virginia Tech Technical Assistance Center represents a collaborative effort among the state education agency, local education agencies, and Virginia Tech. Responsive to the individual needs of local school divisions within a 36 county/district catchment area, the Center under the direction of the Institute for the Study of Exceptionalities houses two separate components serving specific academic and/or behavioral special needs populations. The Severe/Profound TAC and the Mild/Moderate TAC are designed to build local capacity to meet local needs. The goals of the efforts include facilitating shared responsibility of administrators and teachers in meeting unique program needs of students with special needs. The catchment area includes divisions often geographically remote with compounding problems related to transportation,communication and value structures that may differ from system to system.

We believe that all professionals continue to 'grow' after completing a formal training program. As such they are in need of training and technical assistance to meet their continuing training needs. Research has indicated that without such training and technical assistance efforts educators, particularly those associated with special education, are likely to experience burn-out and leave teaching. These concerns are especially serious in the southwest regions of Virginia where recruitment and retention pose dual hazards for school divisions seeking to provide services to learners with handicaps.

This is a complex task that cannot be achieved alone, particularly in today's limited resource market. The challenge must be met by a team of qualified agencies and representative staff. One viable member of that team is the university. In response to this need Virginia Tech

has established the Institute for the Study of Exceptionalities to serve as a resource for those in the Commonwealth who are charged with the provision of services to special needs populations with an emphasis on those populations being served in the more geographically isolated areas of the Commonwealth-Southwest Virginia. The mission of the Institute is capacity building; providing training and technical assistance based on current research to administrative, support and instructional staff as they design, implement and evaluate services to this population. Our aim is to join forces with these professionals to ensure the availability of a free appropriate education for all of the Commonwealth's exceptional learners. If our goal appropriate education for all learners within handicaps is to be achieved, then training and technical assistance must be expanded to the more remote areas of a service region. However, it is imperative to design and implement a broadening of effect without reducing services to existing areas and populations.

The SPH and M/M TAC's provide consultative services that include,but are not limited to:

telephone, center-based and on-site consultations with individual students, teachers, classes that may be long term or short term in duration. Long range planning is provided, emphasizing realistic goals with plans for implementation specific to needs of the student and/or region;

a resource library that houses current state of the art materials such as books,videotapes, software with opportunities available for field testing; and

ongoing professional support via local and regional workshops based on requests by local school divisions and needs assessments; newsletters that focus on information and networking; and building of professional pools of resources at local, sub-regional and region levels.

We believe that the amalgamation of the two efforts as a unified Special Education Technical Assistance Center is essential for a number of reasons. Our impressions from our initial operational months support our beliefs, as we will demonstrate. Previously, organized and supported training and technical assistance has been available to professionals responsible for programs serving only severe/profound and pre-school populations in the Commonwealth. Thus, a significant portion of the Commonwealth's special needs population may have been underserved or unserved due to a lack of organized and planned training/technical assistance (T/TA) activities. If our goal for an appropriate education for all learners with handicaps was to be achieved, T/TA activities needed to be expanded. However, it was imperative to design and implement such broadening of effect without reducing services to existing populations. Reduction of existing services would propel us backward to the early 70's.

Our intent has been to continue the development of the concept of a unified Special Education Technical Assistance Center at the Institute. We believe that with a minimum of additional support, consolidated programs are viable to meet the needs of all learners with handicaps.

As will be noted below, we have learned in our brief operational life that while the needs evidenced by professionals vary significantly across populations, many may be filled by simple (not simplistic) modifications or extension of T/TA models. Some instructional approaches for one population when adapted can be used to address the needs of additional learners. Thus, TAC staff employed primarily to serve one group can provide T/TA in other areas. Materials, print/hardware and software, purchased for one group of learners can be used as is or modified to meet the needs of others. Awareness and orientation activities, individual, small and large group conferences can be provided for all school professionals regardless of the targeted population served. Modes of communication, such as a telephone hot-line, newsletters, SpecialNet, can be used with all groups. Finally, and perhaps most important, there is a single point of reference for T/TA in the region. Administrators, teachers and others

serving our handicapped learners are incredibly busy and cannot be asked to search extensively for T/TA. The single point of entry enables us to respond to a broad range of needs. When we cannot fulfill the need within the scope of our center, we search for the appropriate response, rather than the request initiator having to spend valuable time searching.

Before moving to the program description we should reiterate some basic assumptions we operate under in the design and delivery of T/TA activities. First, when providing technical assistance we view the consultant role as being that of a trainer. To the maximum extent possible we want to train the administrator and/or the classroom teacher so that he/she will be able to solve the problem in the future.

Second, we believe that when a T/TA request is made it is critical that we not "point the finger". Program administrators, classroom teachers, all school personnel must be provided a vehicle in which they feel comfortable in expressing a real or perceived need. When, for example, a teacher makes a request we should view that as an opportunity to improve the instructional environment for the learner with handicaps; not that the teacher is incompetent or lacks basic skills.

Third, our experience suggests that for T/TA to be successful it may be necessary to revise school policy or procedure. In other instances, expensive resources may have to be acquired. In both cases there will be a need to involve not only staff but also program administrators. Building principals, program coordinators, central office staff may all be potentially valuable in providing effective and efficient services for programs within their system. In light of this, whenever T/TA is provided, the local administrators are invited to participate in the technical assistance visit.

Fourth, it has become readily apparent that all T/TA cannot be provided by our staff. As such, we become brokers, the entity that links the T/TA request to the provider. To this end, we continue to employ resources from other IHE's as well as consultants from exemplary school-based programs.

Finally, we believe that there is always room for improvement in any program. We monitor and evaluate all activities conducted by project staff and consultants. The Institute staff and the state network of Technical Assistance Centers are a primary sounding board for discussion about revisions in our project based on data from monitoring and evaluation efforts.

The objectives of the Special Education Technical Assistance Centers at Virginia Tech are : (a) to establish an immediate and continuous training and technical assistance capability in our Region: (b) to operate a comprehensive training and technical assistance system which enables staff to identify needs and respond effectively and efficiently; and (c) to design and administer the project in an efficient and effective manner.

The Mild/Moderate TAC addresses the needs of special and regular educators and administrators who are attempting to serve learners in Southwest Virginia with mild/moderate handicaps including those students identified as learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, educably mentally handicapped and speech/language disordered. Technical assistance efforts target those professionals who primarily serve the mild/moderate population and who cannot at present be served by the resources of the Severe/Profoundly Handicapped and Preschool Handicapped Technical Assistance Centers in the Commonwealth.

The M/M TAC has been established to provide assistance in such areas as: (a) development, management, and/or evaluation of programs for the mildly handicapped; (b) mainstreaming and/or least restrictive environment issues for placement (c) liaison strategies for effective communication between regular and special educators; and (d) trouble shooting on

learning and/or behavioral concerns of teachers and others serving identified handicapped learners.

The SPH TAC represents a joint effort of the Institute for the Study of Exceptionalities at Virginia Tech and the Montgomery County Public School Division, providing training and technical assistance to personnel involved in the education of students with severe handicaps. All SPH TAC services are provided free of charge and include assisting in programming for students having autism, hearing impairments, dual sensory impairments (deaf/blind), severe orthopedic impairments, severe/profound mental retardation, and multiple handicaps.

Students with severe handicaps present a special programming challenge for local school divisions. The small, broadly distributed population, scarcity of certified teachers and programs to provide certification, complex problems of individual students make appropriate programming often difficult to implement on a local basis. State of the art programming information is provided within individual localized contexts to address the unique needs of students in each locality.

The SPH TAC is based on the assumption that the collaboration of teachers and administrators is vital in providing appropriate, longitudinal education services to these students. SPH TAC service delivery is driven by individual needs identified by local school divisions and directed by on-going, consumer-based evaluation. The SPH TAC is designed to build each local school division's capacity to meet its own needs in providing quality educational programming for students with severe handicaps.

The initial months of operation focused on start-up activities. This included awareness programs, identification and securing of resources and needs assessments. Our first and most important task was to establish the LEA contact consortium. Introductory letters were sent to all superintendents in the 36 division region informing them of the program and indicating our intention of identifying a contact person in each division. A similar letter was then mailed to all Special Education administrators in the region. Additionally, during this time introductory presentations were made at local regional and state special education meetings.

The following observations represent our "LEARNINGS" from the first months of working in the field. The observations have guided the design of our activities for year two and provide the framework for our unified efforts.

Special education supervisors in Southwest Virginia are a fairly tight-knit, independent group of people. They feel that they have unique needs that are often not understood by administrators or persons outside of their community. In many cases, supervisors have developed creative educational alternatives to meet the unique needs of their community and to maximize use of existing resources. This is especially true in providing programming for the SPH student when there is a paucity of readily accessible information regarding best education practices for these students. Supervisors feel that their SPH programs are not judged with their unique needs and resources in mind. State-funded technical assistance programs in the past have apparently stressed LEA confirmation to outside standards without considerations of local needs and initiatives.

Technical assistance delivered in southwest Virginia involves focused consideration of: (a) the specific population to be served; (b) existing programs for that population; (c) current role of persons with mild/moderate and/or severe/profound handicaps in the local community; (d) each school division's current philosophy regarding education of students with mild/moderate and/or severe/profound handicaps; (e) the LEA *context* within surrounding counties or school divisions; and (f) available community resources for persons with handicaps and their families.

Supervisors in the catchment area seem willing to take proactive rather than reactive roles in improving educational programs for special education students. Bringing current best practices in special education into the context of the students' local community is a viable approach. We believe that taking advantage of the autonomy and resourcefulness of supervisors in our region by: (a) considering their unique circumstances (population, resources, community etc.); (b) crediting them for their achievements to date; (c) considering their long-range goals for their special education programs in general and the SPH programs in particular; and (d) assuming that they *care* about all special needs students and *want* to provide quality instructional programs for them goes, a long way toward bridging the gap between current best practices in special education as described in University programs and services actually being delivered in classrooms. The Technical Assistance Center staff is committed to assisting teachers and administrators in using these practices within their own contexts, setting long-range goals, and seeing the outcome of education for the special education student as being the same as for any student - maximum successful involvement in the mainstream of community life.

Special education teachers, building principals, and special education supervisors need to know what "state of the art" programming for special education students *looks* like, what the outcomes are, and how to "pull it off". Without proper training and support, giving teachers the "tools" of systematic instructional techniques, strategies for implementing community-based instruction and data collection procedures is like handing someone who has never seen a house all the boards, nails and hammers he needs to build one and telling him to get on with it. We are committed in our efforts to address the ethical issues involved in educating all special needs students, and providing teachers with a vision for the future of their students. Creative, appropriate use of instructional "technology" will only happen when teachers buy into the principles underlying functional, community referenced education for all students.

We continue to develop a network of local "experts" throughout our region and use them as TAC consultants, documenting through videotapes exemplary classrooms, programs, or projects ongoing in our area, encouraging teachers and administrators to visit each other's programs, and collecting audio-visual examples of "before and after" success stories in a variety of settings to encourage development of an atmosphere in which our technical assistance efforts would be maximized.

In addition to identifying *what* training/technical assistance is needed to enable school divisions to provide effective programs for special needs students, how that technical assistance is delivered seems to be of importance. Due to the small and uneven population distribution, heavily rural area, and relative isolation of LEA's, effective technical assistance cannot be delivered in a typical center-based fashion. Once LEA's are aware of services that exist, most requests coming into the TAC center itself via phone calls or walk-in consultations are reactive in nature -- asking for assistance in solving a particular problem or acquiring a certain type of material -- i.e., putting out fires. More comprehensive, proactive technical assistance seems to need an outreach oriented format, taking services out to the people who need them. The location of the TAC facility seems important mainly in terms of profile or the facility's identity as a resource, and not as a convenient location for "walk-in trade".

We continue to address the need for handling consultancy requests in a more creative fashion. Development of an expanded consultancy model seems a high priority. "Expanded consultations" would not put "band aids" on difficult problems, but would provide specifically for training of teachers and administrators in solving similar problems in the future. Several outstanding consultants in our state who do not recognize financial gain from consulting through TAC's have indicated to us that they would be more willing to provide services if they felt that those services *made a real difference* in programming for the students involved. Building in mechanisms for follow-up, telephone communication with consultants, provision of relevant resource materials, and connection with appropriate local resources could

maximize TAC consultancy services and give teachers skills at adequate levels to assist others in the future.

Additionally, we believe that library services could also be more effective through an outreach-oriented approach. In addition to providing materials on request, the TAC offers assistance to teachers in using and adapting those materials for use with their students. "Satellite libraries" are being established in areas having particular needs. Providing options for follow-up in use of library materials/equipment is being built into TAC procedures. We hope to encourage the use of "SpecialNet" to provide a way for LEA's to keep up with special equipment purchased by other division and as a vehicle for sharing that provides readily accessible opportunities for teachers to see equipment in use before they buy it. TAC staff could provide assistance to teachers and administrators in using the "SpecialNet" system to receive and share information. Promoting an atmosphere of sharing and linking together of teachers who feel isolated from each other is an initial goal for positive change.

TAC center regional and local workshops are based on specific needs identified by teachers and administrators, are pragmatic in nature, and focus on application of best education practices for special needs students in the local context. Workshops include opportunities, through demonstration or videotapes, for participants to see concepts being presented in application. All workshops include some mechanism for follow-up, i.e., a contact person to call when problems arise as teachers put learned skills into practice, supplementary materials, names of nearby teachers who also attended the workshop. Providing teachers with many localized, intensive workshops, rather than a few large regional ones, and following up large regional workshops with in-services maximizes effectiveness of this type of technical assistance.

The TAC center serves as an important forum for discussion of broad-based issues affecting special education programming in our region and in the state. Problems such as teacher endorsement, in-service training for regular educators relative to students with special needs, integration of students with severe handicaps with their non-handicapped peers, transition and post-school services, integrated community living and family issues are pervasive in nature and should be addressed on a broad scale to provide a context for local action. Bringing together university people, school administrators at state and local levels, teachers and parents to address such issues provides the groundwork for maximizing technical assistance efforts in local school divisions.

It has become apparent that we must establish collaborative arrangements with other agencies which currently provide services to a similar population as served by the TAC. Not only do these agencies provide direct services to clients and their families, but also they have or could have technical assistance systems. To this end, we hope to convene a group of parents to begin to build COMMUNITY COALITIONS which will support the design, delivery and evaluation of service delivery to the target population.

The initial phase of operation has entailed the conduct of a field-based needs assessment of the service system for the identified population. Through a series of large and small group meetings throughout the catchment area a portrayal of the system is beginning to emerge. Our intent is to describe the system, its outcomes for learners and their families, the strategies employed to meet these outcomes, and resources allocated to support program initiatives. This portrayal will then be inspected to identify gaps of weaknesses which can be overcome through T/TA activities. The result of the needs assessment process will be a comprehensive plan to ensure the capacity of local school divisions to meet the needs of all handicapped learners.

Concurrently, we must acknowledge the reality that immediate T/TA needs will surface as the needs assessment unfolds. To this end, project staff are prepared to respond either through the employment of staff expertise or through a brokering system using identified

consi 's from school divisions and universities in the region or elsewhere in the Comm ...alth in providing the necessary training and technical assistance needs. This unifi.. approach to providing technical assistance to special needs populations provides a much needed vehicle for communication in a catchment area often isolated from wider state efforts due to geographic barriers as well as demographic profiles. The Center is our attempt to provide quality training and technical assistance to primarily rural educators in the southwest region of Virginia. It is our belief that the strengths of our approach can generalize to areas of similar geographic and demographic diversity.

Carolyn Maddy-Bernstein, Ed.D.
Director, TASPP
Sheri Kallembach, M.Ed.
Assistant Director, TASPP

National Center for Research in
Vocational Education
University of Illinois Site
Room 345, Education Building
1310 S. Sixth Street
Champaign, Illinois 60820

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE FOR SPECIAL POPULATIONS PROGRAM (TASPP) OF THE NATIONAL CENTER FOR RESEARCH IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The Technical Assistance for Special Populations Program (TASPP) is a service function of the National Center for Research in Vocational Education at the University of California, Berkeley. Housed at the University of Illinois site of the National Center, it is designed to assist in the improvement of vocational education programs for special needs youth and adults. TASPP's direction is guided by a national task force comprised of principal investigators from the various Center institutions as well as national leaders in the field of vocational education for special populations. Some TASPP activities include conducting workshops, publishing a quarterly newsletter on critical issues and policy options, and developing appropriate materials for national distribution.

The TASPP goals are to:

1. Provide comprehensive resource and referral services to practitioners, researchers, and policy makers working in vocational education with special needs populations at the secondary and post secondary level;

2. Initiate and support networks of professionals serving the vocational education needs of special groups; and

3. Provide targeted technical assistance on selected topics or problems to improving the quality of vocational education programs provided to special populations.

In 1988, TASPP services focused on two critical themes: (a) strengthening the transition of special groups, and (b) examining federal and state policy options for the improvement of special needs programs and services. During Year II, TASPP themes include special assistance to professionals serving (1) immigrant and LEP students, (2) students at risk of dropping out of school, and (3) teen parents. The staff is also beginning to investigate the unique needs of special learners in rural and urban settings. During the 1989 calendar year, the National Center's research programs centering on vocational education in rural and urban areas should come to fruition providing excellent material and data for the technical assistance function.

Persons interested in Rural Special Education will find the TASPP Resource Guide on Transition a useful reference. The guide was developed during the fall of 1988 for publication in January, 1989. It is intended to assist state and local administrators of vocational special needs programs, special needs educators, counselors, and others interested in strengthening the transition of special needs learners to workplaces and continuing education programs. Resources listed in the guide include handbooks, curriculum guides, and other materials produced by state departments, OSERS and state funded projects, organizations, and associations. Journals, newsletters, annotated bibliographies, and directories addressing transition issues are included. Clearinghouses, state vocational and technical education curriculum centers, directories of appropriate federal and state personnel responsible for special needs programs, education information services, and a list of toll free numbers are also included.

The common components of the transition process were used as guidelines for the search for materials included in the Resource Guide. These common components include: functional school curricula, integrated school services, interagency cooperation, cooperative planning, staff development, community-based instruction, parental involvement, employment, and support services. Materials included in the guide were obtained from: searching computerized databases; reading electronic bulletin boards,

article references, and journals; contacting publishing companies, associations, and organizations; and contacting OSERS and state funded projects, as well as state personnel responsible for vocational education for handicapped, disadvantaged, and limited English proficient persons. For each entry, an annotation is provided along with the price and ordering information whenever possible.

During 1989, TASPP will conduct a number of activities to assist practitioners, researchers, and policy makers. A computerized information base is presently being developed to serve as a prompt and efficient means of accessing data. The information will include volumes of data such as directory information, material about federally and state funded programs, publications available from publishers as well as state and national groups, etc. A toll free number will be installed by mid year for the convenience of persons requesting information or other assistance. Also the newsletter Interchange will be published quarterly and a pre American Vocational Association workshop will be conducted. Products to be developed during the 1989 and 1990 years will focus on information about the unique needs of special learners in rural and urban areas as well as students at risk of dropping out of school, teen parents, and Limited English Proficient and immigrant students.

A major responsibility of TASPP is to identify exemplary programs and effective practices for serving youths and adults with special needs through vocational education programs. National Center researchers Allen Phelps, Tom Wermuth (University of Illinois) and Robert Crain and Patrica Cane (Teachers College, Columbia) began the search process during 1988 when they researched policy options and developed a paper that details federal policy options regarding vocational education for special needs populations. That paper focused on access which special needs youth and adults have to vocational programs and services, quality and effects of programs and services, and outcomes realized by students and society. As a result of this research, certain criteria of effective programs became apparent. They also noted findings from other researchers who cited characteristics of effective programs. In addition to reviewing the research findings on effective programs, the National Center staff surveyed Special Needs Educators to determine criteria they feel should be used in identifying exemplary programs and effective practices. The programs to be identified during 1989 and subsequent years will thus be a result of extensive research of the criteria that make a program exemplary. Programs will be identified

in rural and urban areas and will include those serving disadvantaged, handicapped, and limited English proficient.

Persons interested in receiving information about TASPP activities should contact the Director or Assistant Director at (217) 333 0807 - Room 345, Education Building, 1310 South Sixth Street, University of Illinois, Champaign, IL 61820.

David May
Assoc. Prof. of Education
Whitman College
Walla Walla WA 99362

NETWORKING SCIENCE TEACHING IN SMALL AND RURAL SCHOOLS

What should be taught in elementary school science, and how it should be taught, are recurring questions in both professional journals and the popular press. An article in Educational Leadership begins: "Should we teach science as a review of what scientists know or as something which students can use?" (Yager, 1988). The author answers his question by stating that "Teachers should promote student involvement, ... , by posing questions and problems relevant for the students." To Yager, elementary science is based on the premise that students acquire knowledge because they need it, not because the teacher insists it will be useful later. However they acquire their knowledge of science, it would appear that students don't learn enough. One newspaper article asserts that "...only about 10 percent of adult Americans could be considered scientifically literate." (Spokesman-Review Spokane Chronicle, 1986). The article defines literacy thusly "...most experts believe scientific literacy means more than mastery of scientific facts." The 1983 report A Nation At Risk, speaking to the same problem, recommended that high school graduation requirements be increased and, at a minimum, students be required to take three years of science in high school. The phenomena of decreased enrollment in elective high school science courses is well documented; understanding the decline requires examination of how students view science and its importance to their lives. Evidence indicates that these feelings are based, at least in part, upon the kind of experiences students have had in science before they reach high school.

In a recent report, then Secretary of Education Bennett stated that by the fourth grade, a majority of students were turned off to the study of science. Combining that assertion with the decline in enrollment in high school classes would lead to a hypothesis that increasing scientific literacy begins with more effective forms of science instruction in elementary and middle school classrooms.

That change is needed is well documented. In summarizing a program called Project Synthesis, Penick and Yager list the following information:

> "1) There is a mismatch between the science curriculum found in schools and that which 90% of the students need and want.
> 2) Nearly all science teachers (90%) emphasize goals for school science that are directed only toward preparing students for further formal study of science.

4) Over 90% of all science teachers use a textbook 95% of the time; hence, the textbook becomes the course outline, the framework, the parameters for student's experiences, testing, and a world view of science.
5) There is virtually no evidence of science being learned by direct experience.
6) While much effort has centered on writing textbooks, there has been little or no attention to the development of a true science curriculum, encompassing goals, materials, classroom environment, and teaching strategy.
8) There is no evidence that science in its most basic sense is ever approached in school science." (Penick & Yager, 1986)

John Goodlad, in A Study of Schooling, provided further insight into why science is viewed so negatively by students.

> "One would expect the teaching of social studies and science in schools to provide ample opportunities for the development of reasoning: deriving concepts from related events, testing in a new situation hypotheses derived from examining other circumstances, drawing conclusions from an array of data, and so on. Teachers listed those skills and more as intended learning. We observed little of the activities that their list implied, and teachers' tests reflected quite different priorities--mainly the recall of information." (Goodlad, 1983)

The result of all this, according to Goodlad is that "No academic subject ranked above fourth place for interest at the secondary level."

Another finding cited by Goodlad is that data are relatively consistent from school to school. He states it thusly: "It appears, then, that a rich, detailed body of data on even a small sample of representative schools can shed much light on problems and issues that may be endemic to schooling." (Goodlad, 1983) This information supports the contention that small and rural schools are not markedly different from their urban counterparts. Certain problems may be exacerbated by conditions in small or rural schools, just as certain problems are of much greater consequence in an inner-city school. Teacher isolation is a problem in all schools but it is more direct in a school which has only two or three teachers, or at best one teacher per grade in K-6. In curriculum areas like science, not having someone to ask or share concerns with can reduce even further the willingness to make a special effort and teach science as it should be taught.

Goodlad goes on to assert that if one seeks to improve education one must first understand the context in which that education is taking place.

> "Committed to the factory model without feeling the need to validate it, our reflex response to school problems as citizens and educators is to increase pressure through mandates, testing requirements, new standards for college entrance, and the like. We rarely look at what lies between the input valve and the output spigot. To treat even

something as simple as frozen water pipes in this manner would be to court disaster. The interactions of individuals and other elements in and around schools are far more complicated than the interaction of cold air with water pipes. Strategies for school improvement that ignore these interactions and the rationales governing them are unlikely to have more than minimal impact on the culture of schools." (Goodlad, 1983)

As noted above, the interactions of teachers and students in science classes are often less than ideal. Seeking 'strategies for school improvement' is one of the goals which propelled the formation of a consortium of nine small and rural schools located in the SE corner of the state of Washington. Originally formed as a strategy to counter school consolidation movements, the school superintendents who created the Blue Mountain Small Schools Consortium (BMSSC) decided to cooperatively seek solutions to other problems after the consolidation crisis abated. In pursuing alternative methods of providing staff development and inservice opportunities to teachers, the BMSSC approached Whitman College. As a private, undergraduate liberal arts institution, the ability of the college to provide these types of services seemed problematic. Although the college does have a teacher education program, it does not offer any graduate programs and had not offered a summer program of classes since 1973. Recognizing an opportunity to expand its services to local schools, the college and BMSSC entered into a two-year trial agreement, in which the college agreed to develop a program of summer courses for teachers.

BMSSC/WHITMAN INSERVICE AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Promoting good teaching in all areas of the curriculum, as one major factor in increasing student achievement, is a primary goal of this collaborative effort. The search for methods which would work to enhance and increase the incidence of effective teaching in elementary school science provided the problem focus. In initial planning, factors which adversely affect teaching of elementary school science in BMSSC schools were listed. These are: 1) the concern that teachers felt regarding their own knowledge level in science content; 2) equipment and related budget problems. Equipment problems included both situations where no equipment was available and no money existed for purchase and situations where equipment was available but teachers did not use it, for various reasons; 3) not having curriculum materials available which provide sufficient structure to enable teachers to teach the type of science desired; and, 4) a belief that science instruction occupies a lower priority than do other areas of the curriculum. The creation of curriculum/science materials kits represents the BMSSC's second cycle of attempts to meet these key problems. The first inservice/staff development efforts focused on presenting a more traditional-style staff development program for teachers.

TEACHER KNOWLEDGE OF SCIENCE AND PEDAGOGY

Porter and Brophy define teacher knowledge as one component of good teaching.

> "Teacher knowledge is represented as encompassing (1) knowledge about the content to be taught, (2) knowledge about pedagogical strategies for teaching the content, and (3) knowledge about the students (in particular, about student background knowledge that can be capitalized upon and about student misconceptions that will need to be confronted during teaching). Good teaching requires possession and use of all three of the categories of teacher knowledge, not just knowledge of subject matter." (Porter & Brophy, 1987)

Porter and Brophy address the question of elementary teachers and science knowledge directly. They state "Elementary teachers tend to be ... typically weak in knowledge about science."

Based upon data from a needs assessment survey of all teachers in the nine BMSSC schools, a decision was made to emphasize science and mathematics in the summer program. To provide content knowledge in science and updated pedagogy, summer programs in 1986 & '87 offered courses in four areas of science: Biology, Chemistry, Earth Science, and Physics. Courses in methodology of teaching science were also offered. Funding was obtained from a series of Title II--Education for Economic Security grants, and combined with tuition waivers by the college, enabled the program to bypass problems with high tuition costs of the college.

Along with the goal of increasing content knowledge and pedagogical skills, the staff development courses sought to build and demonstrate a model of science teaching and learning which is the antithesis of the science teaching cited in Project Synthesis above. The type of science which this project seeks to promote has been defined by Lawrence Scharmann as:

> "(1) curiosity is the fundamental driving force in science; (2) science is process-oriented; (3) science aims at simplification and ever-increasing comprehensiveness;(4) there is no one scientific method as often described in school science textbooks;(5) science is characterized by a few attributes which focus more on values than techniques;(6) science is a faith in the susceptibility of the environment to human ordering and understanding;(7) science possesses a unique attribute of openness and willingness to change conclusions in light of new evidence; and (8) science is characterized by uncertainty and tentativeness." (Scharmann, 1988)

All inservice and staff development activities in the BMSSC were designed to provide the specific teacher knowledge listed by Porter and Brophy. Despite the relative success of these efforts, as indicated by teacher enrollment in summer courses and their evaluations of the coursework, significant improvement in the amount and quality of science instruction did not result. It is

hypothesized that either the courses failed to provide teachers with sufficient knowledge, particularly in science content and pedagogy, to enable them to improve their science teaching, and/or, other factors operate to negatively affect science instruction.

Since the more traditional courses had failed to meet the goal of increasing the amount and effectiveness of science teaching, other avenues had to be explored. The projected solution was to provide the teacher with instructional materials which contain sufficient structure to help him/her feel comfortable in teaching the lessons. This approach recognizes the importance of teacher knowledge but supplies the deficit with carefully structured lessons that relieve teachers of their feeling that they must be an Einstein to effectively teach science to children. Even when a program is able to help teachers overcome their concerns about science knowledge, it still must address those problems associated with equipment dependent instruction.

EQUIPMENT PROBLEMS

Science equipment poses significant problems for many elementary school teachers. Getting the necessary materials is often the most basic concern. Beakers, graduated cylinders, and magnifying glasses are expensive and in times of tight budgets, science equipment is often given low priority. And even those teachers who have the needed equipment have problems with storage, getting it passed out to students and collected again after the lesson. Rural schools also face the unique problem of being geographically isolated, making it difficult to obtain materials. Without someone with expertise in science, the very task of ordering science equipment can be an overwhelming one.

The idea of creating traveling science kits had its beginning when all of the BMSSC schools pooled together the small grants which each received under Title II Math and Science program. Based on student enrollment, most of the dollar amounts were too small to be meaningful by themselves (the smallest was $29.00). Joined together with those of other BMSSC schools, however, the grants made a significant total. This money was used to purchase science materials for construction of kits to be used by all schools in the BMSSC.

The instructional kits are planned so as to eliminate as many of the equipment problems associated with using activity based science lessons as possible. The only action required of the classroom teacher who uses the kit is to replenish consumable materials before the kit is returned to storage. The kits are designed to be fully comprehensive, containing all of the materials needed for the planned lessons. Non-consumable materials are sturdy and damage proof to minimize need for replacement. An inventory list in the kit helps teachers regather all of the materials and return the kit with its full complement of materials. Kits are spot checked before they are sent to a school to ensure that no major equipment discrepancies exist. This system is functional only to the extent that teachers cooperate, however, since no formal structure exists to monitor condition of the kits.

In order to facilitate use of the kits, at present they are stored at the college, which while not geographically central, is centrally located. Teachers request the kit and it is sent to their school for use. At present no absolute time limits have been set, since the program is in its infancy, and demand is light. If the program develops as expected, demand could be met in different ways. If the kits prove popular enough to warrant it, they could be duplicated without costing too much. A second procedure would be to schedule each kit in a school in some sequence throughout the year. Teachers would know when the kit would be available and could thus plan their instruction accordingly. A smaller but related problem exists within the concept of a spiral curriculum. Since many of the materials in a kit are common to different activities, an example being magnets in the Magnets and Electricity kit, teachers of different grade levels must work cooperatively to make the materials kit system functional. Whether this will develop into a major problem is not known at this time. Further use of the system will be required to determine the magnitude of this and other problems.

CURRICULUM MATERIALS AND LESSON PLANS

The equipment kits would be incomplete if they did not provide teachers with some form of instructional outline or lesson plans. An obvious answer would be to select a science curriculum or text series which meets the needs of teachers. Given the diverse nature of BMSSC schools, each with a different cycle of textbook adoptions, such a selection would be very difficult at best. And, complicating the process was a failure to find a text series which contained the desired kinds of science experiences. Use of existing published material did not appear to offer a solution to the problem. A new approach was necessary to provide teachers with a support system which would enable them to overcome the problems they faced in teaching science to children.

If published curriculum materials are not available or are unsuitable, another option is to create such materials to meet specific goals and needs. In doing so, one must be cognizant of the problems created by 'teacher-proof curriculums' which hampered instructional improvements in science in the recent past. When such instructional packets are carefully crafted, however, they offer great potential benefit to teachers. While not speaking to science directly, Porter and Brophy describe such benefits thusly:

> " However, the implied assumption that teachers can do better working on their own with scarce time and meager financial resources is even more questionable. If teachers carefully select instructional materials to fit the curriculum goals and the characteristics of their students and then make extensive use of these materials, they will be able to devote most of their time and energy to practices that enrich the content through reinterpretation and expansion and that clarify the content through presentation, recitation, discussion, and evaluation activities." (Porter & Brophy, 1987)

It was clearly recognized that kits of science teaching

materials were a necessary but not sufficient condition for improving science instruction. A concomitant requirement was to provide instructional plans which met two criteria: 1) detailed enough to provide guidance for a teacher who needed a lot of help; and 2) with enough room for expansion and extension of learning to allow a teacher to go beyond the actual lesson plan. The intent of the kits is not to limit a teachers creativity in science but rather to offer a base of doable, proven, effective science experiences for children. Beyond that, a teacher can use the lessons and materials in any way he/she desires.

The kits also represent an attempt to establish continuity in science programs between grades. A commitment was made to provide the outline, at least, of a spiral curriculum in each topic. Each kit provides learning activities which build on a common theme, such as water, and provide learning experiences at different grade levels. Through the continued study of major concepts in science, at increasing levels of complexity students will, it is hoped, acquire a deeper understanding of the concepts.

The task of helping teachers obtain maximum benefit from the kits is still in progress. Ideally, no teacher would be allowed to teach lessons from the kit without some form of inservice. The reality is such that this will remain a goal for the near future at least. As a substitute, BMSSC has begun a program to videotape the lessons being presented in a classroom, so that teachers may, if they wish, view the lesson being taught by a master teacher. Hopefully this will enable them to feel more comfortable with the lesson content, its goals and objectives, and the activities which build the desired knowledge and skill in students. Access to a science consultant at the college level is also intended to help teachers overcome whatever problems they encounter in using the kits. It is quite likely that lesson plans will need to be rewritten as teachers identify problem areas within the instructional sequence.

EVALUATING THE PROJECT

Unfortunately, most questions about this effort to positively affect elementary science instruction in a consortium of small and rural schools remain unanswerable at this time. The program is too new for the gathering of any evaluative data. Only continued use of the curriculum guides and material kits will enable judgments of the effectiveness of the program. On a macro level, the number of times the kits are used by teachers will provide rough evaluative data. Further evaluation efforts could focus on student achievement and changes in their conception of the importance of science and their attitudes towards it. Final evaluation of the effectiveness of the kits will come, however, only through a longitudinal study which documents the future actions of those students who study science, at least in part, out of the kits. The ultimate decision criterion will be whether these students elect to study science in high school at a rate greater than have their peers in the past. Short term evaluations, such as changes in attitude or knowledge of science as measured on standardized tests do not provide the meaningful kinds of information on which to

judge these types of improvement efforts. The ultimate goal remains that of increasing scientific literacy among our citizens; this requires that students take more, and hopefully more effective, science courses in high school.

References

Goodlad, John I. A Study of Schooling: Some Findings and Hypotheses, The Phi Delta Kappan 64, (March 1983), 465-470

Penick, John E. & Yager, Robert E. Science Education: New Concerns and Issues, Science Education 70, (July 1986), 427-431

Porter, Andrew C. & Brophy, Jere Synthesis of Research on Good Teaching: Insights from the Work of the Institute for Research on Teaching, Educational Leadership 45 (May 1988): 74-85

Scharmann, Lawrence C. Locus of Control: A Discriminator of the Ability to Foster an Understanding of the Nature of Science among Preservice Elementary Teachers, Science Education 72, (July 1988):453-463

PRESENTERS: Lynda Mazzola, M.S., C.C.C./SP
Speech-Language Pathologist
RFD #1, Box 2800
Leeds, ME 04263

Heather Griffiths, M.A., C.C.C./SP
Speech-Language Pathologist
36 Adams Circle
Gardiner, ME 04345

Kathryn Markovchick, M.S.
Univeristy of Maine at Farmington
Farmington, ME 04938

Mark Fasold, Parent
RR #1
Raymond, ME 04071

MAINE CUED SPEECH CAMP: A Success Story for Parents, Teachers, and Children in a Rural State

During the last week in August, children with hearing impairments from approximately thirty-forty Maine families, speech therapists, teachers, parents, and friends attend a week-long Cued Speech summer camp at Camp Mechawana in Winthrop, Maine. Cued Speech Camp began 10 years ago when Heather Griffiths, a speech-language pathologist in Gardiner, Me, saw a need to have families who use Cued Speech come together in an informal setting to talk, learn, and share their experiences. Ever since that time, the annual camp has grown in both the number of participants and in the role it plays for all of us who used Cued Speech in the state of Maine.

Cued Speech is a method of communication for use with and by the aurally handicapped, in which eight configurations and four positions of one (either) hand are used to supplement the visible manifestations of natural speech. Its purpose is to overcome the limitations of pure oral-aural methods without deviating from or compromising any of the objectives of oralism. Specifically, Cued Speech is designed to overcome the following problems encountered by a large majority of children with severe hearing impairment:

1. The problem of limited communication in the early years, resulting in retarded personality development and delayed social maturation.
2. The problem of dela/ed acquisition of verbal language.
3. Failure to acquire an accurate mental model of the spoken language. Such a model is indispensable for accurate speech patterns, for maximum development of speechreading ability, and as a base for reading.
4. The lack of a convenient method of clear communication in the classroom and elsewhere, for use in instruction, for clearing up misunderstanding, and for clarifying pronunciation.

Its basic purpose is that of enabling the young child who is aurally handicapped to acquire language in the early years of life, in a form and way acceptable to those who place a high priority upon the development of ability to communicate through speech and speechreading, and of making it possible for the child with a hearing impairment to develop normal reading skills.

Cued Speech Camp is free of charge to all attendees. Food, lodging and professional services are provided to ensure that no family is denied an opportunity to go to camp. Funding has been provided by a number of sources which include: Maine State Department of Education and Cultural Services, Maine State Department of Human Services, Division of Maternal and Child Health, Medicaid, Bureau of Rehabilition, various local service clubs (Lions, Elks, local Granges, etc.), and private donations.

A day at Cued Speech camp typically starts with breakfast at the Commons Dining Hall. After breakfast the children with hearing impairments begin their day with a morning of speech-language therapy (2 hours each day). Speech therapists, university students, and teachers work with the children in small groups, providing all sorts of activities designed to build receptive and expressive speech-language skills. Following speech therapy the children participate with their hearing peers in arts and crafts for a breif period before lunch.

After lunch there is free time for swimming, walking in the woods, playing outdoor sports, cooking, listening to a story, music, or taking a nap. During all of these activities Cued Speech is being implemented by speech therapists, students, parents, teachers, and the hearing siblings and peers of the hearing impaired children. There is even a Cued Speech class for parents, teachers, friends and family while the children are in speech therapy.

The time after dinner includes a dance for the hearing impaired children, their friends and family, movies, cooking activities, games, and just plain relaxing. Some evenings have a program schedule for parents on various topics of concern to all. During these programs the children are entertained so parents can listen and discuss different presentations. There is also at least one family campfire which includes families and staff.

The highlight of the week is the Annual Play which is presented on Friday morning. This play is written by one of the staff members and is put on by all of the children with hearing impairments from birth-18. Each year the play is videotaped and parents are welcome to borrow the tape at any time. It also allows parents and therpists to assess progress from year-year.

During one session of Cued Speech Camp the idea of forming a Cued Speech Association of Maine was conceived. The first year was dedicated to getting a mailing list together (of 40 families who use Cued Speech and over one hundred persons with some interest in Cueing), and fundraising for Cued Speech Camp. Since then the association has grown and provides a referral and support service to new families who wish to learn more about Cued Speech. The Cued Speech Association of Maine has also been responsible for providing speakers at local and state conferences, presenting Cued Speech Workshops for persons interested in learning how to use Cued Speech, increasing awareness of Cued Speech though public television, and fundraising for the annual Cued Speech Camp.

Individual speech-language care plans are developed for each child with a hearing impairment. Many of the children make significant gains that were not specifically planned for during the camp program. For example, children become much more spontaneous when talking to others. The hearing siblings involved in the camp program realize the importance of using Cued Speech because they have to cue to <u>all</u> the children with hearing impairments in order to be clearly understood. Speech

therapists are able to observe the child-parent interaction and give immediate meaningful feedback to families on how they can best facilitate speech-language development for their children. Another important objective accomplished during this camp program is that families who are interested in learning more about Cued Speech have an opportunity to come and see other families with hearing impaired children use Cued Speech, and consequently are able to see how Cued Speech can be used as a tool to facilitate language development for the hearing impaired.

Many other gains are made by those who participate in this camp program. Teachers are given the opportunity to learn Cued Speech and to meet their students prior to the school year in which that child is enrolled in their classroom. The sharing of previous experiences by school personnel and parents has made future educational planning more realistic. Special programs are offered during the evenings for parents and various school personnel who have children with hearing impairments in their schools. For all of these reasons a definite need for the continuation of the Maine Cued Speech Camp program has been determined, and each year fundraising by the Cued Speech Association of Maine has made it possible for parents and families to attend without cost to individual families.

Inservicing Techniques for Low Incidence Populations in Rural Settings: Educational Partnerships for Hearing Impaired Students

ABSTRACT

Hearing impaired students in rural areas are often a low incidence population. Because of this, local school districts may work with intermediate educational agencies. A triad is then formed between the classroom teacher, the teacher for the hearing impaired and the hearing impaired student. Description of the role and the responsilibilities of the itinerant teacher is discussed. Suggestions on topics to be covered in an inservice for the classroom are presented. Cooperation and communication are key elements for creating a successful program for the hearing impaired student.

Inservicing Techniques for Low Incidence Populations in Rural Settings: Educational Partnerships for Hearing Impaired Students

In dealing with the school populations and the variety of handicaps, hearing impaired is often referred to as a handicap having a low incidence (Northcott, 1973). With this in mind it is not unusual for small school districts to have too few students to create a classroom specifically for them. With the establishment of intermediate educational agencies, these students can now receive appropriate resource services.

The presence of a hearing impaired student in the classroom creates a triad between the regular education teacher, the hearing impaired student and the teacher for the hearing impaired. When these three coordinate their efforts, appropriate effective learning can occur. With proper inservicing, and coordination of services this can be a dynamic team.

The students that will be primarily discussed in this paper are hard of hearing. With that in mind, let us first define the terms deaf and hard of hearing. By deaf, reference is made to those students who have little or no residual hearing. They do not develop or comprehend speech and language through the auditory channel (Davis, 1977). Hard of hearing children are those who do use sound and develop their speech and language through an auditory base. The loss may affect their speech and cause langauge to be deviant but hard-of-hearing children will function much more like hearing children than like deaf children (Davis, 1977). When deciding the educational placement of a student, it is important to remember it is the functioning of the child in the classroom that is the key issue and not necessarily the specific degree of hearing loss (Northcott, 1973). Some deaf children may function in the classroom more as a hard of hearing child.

With this in mind, the regular education teacher will need to know what, if any, techniques will be needed in the classroom to provide the optimum learning environment and the student will need to know how to cope with his/her environment so that optimum learning can occur.

Each person in this triad has unique qualities for assisting the other. Each also will rely on the others for the success of the program. This paper will look at each person in the triad and what kind of things that can be done to improve the communication between them. This communication should then lead to a more successful educational program for the student, who is the reason why there is a program. Let us begin with the role of the teacher for the hearing impaired. Since the incidence of hearing impaired is relatively low, the teacher for the hearing impaired will probably be hired by an intermediate education agency and will probably provide service on an itinerant basis. This means the teacher for the hearing impaired will be traveling around to several schools and must therefore coordinate schedules for meeting not only with the student but with the classroom teacher in each of the local school districts.

As the itinerant teacher, the first need is to recognize that every teacher has a different style in teaching. Suggestions and modifications for the classroom need to be at a level that the classroom teacher finds comfortable. If they don't feel comfortable with a suggestion, the itinerant teacher needs to respect the individuality of that teacher.

Secondly, the itinerant teacher needs to be sensitive to the issue of ownership. This raises the question as to who must ultimately grade the student's paper and who must ultimately report to the principal and parents concerning the progress that is being made. Since the educational district is responsible for the educational program, the regular education teacher will probably sense a great deal of ownership regarding the student.

Thirdly, the itinerant teacher must realize that even though s/he is hired by the intermediate agency s/he is responsible for working with the local district. There is a world of difference between working for a district and working with a district. When providing services on an itinerant basis, this may mean that the itinerant teacher may be given any available space that may be found during the school day. This available space may vary for the itinerant teacher depending on the scheduled contact time with the student. Additionally since school districts may have only one or two hearing impaired students in their district, they may not understand the full range of students that are being served or the restraints of caseload and time availability that the itinerant teacher is dealing with (Orlansky, 1977). It is very important for the itinerant to observe the rules and procedures of each school district that s/he works in and try to follow the policies of the district as much as possible.

With the itinerant teacher working for an intermediate agency, s/he will also need the opportunity to consult with additional ancillary personnel such as the audiologist and the speech pathologist, so access to these people is necessary. In some areas, these persons may also be providing services to the child. In those instances, the itinerant teacher may be responsible for coordinating information between the various professionals involved in the student's educational program.

Finally the itinerant teacher needs to be concerned with the proper attitude. This factor refers not only to the teacher-to-teacher relationship but to that of the attitude of the classroom teacher towards the hearing impaired student. Proper inservicing will help the classroom teachers to be aware of when and how they may be patronizing the hearing impaired child and when they are expecting behavior that is too demanding based on the auditory limits of the child. Dealing with attitude includes developing a good working relationship between all parts of the triad.

The first step in providing inservice information to the classroom teacher is to explain the impact that a hearing loss has on the student's program. This explanation would include how the degree of hearing loss may effect the student's ability to learn. A basic audiogram needs to be explained with a clear explanation of what it represents. Placing the student's hearing thresholds on an audiogram, particularly one which shows where various phonemes appear (Ginsberg, Sanborn, Note 1), may be helpful in explaining to the classroom teacher what can be expected from the student. Having the teacher listen to material that is comparable to the student's hearing loss also gives them insight into the struggle and frustration that may occur in the classroom (Gloring, 1971; Stowe, 1964). Recorded materials may also provide the regular education teacher with an example of the difference between sound that merely needs to be intensified versus that where the sound is distorted.

After getting an idea of what kind of hearing loss the student has, the regular teacher then needs to know what, if any, special techniques need to be applied in the classroom. The first is student-teacher placement. Generally, it works best for the student to be in the front of the class with the teacher near by. Teachers should be discouraged from wandering around the classroom since this makes it difficult for the child to lipread (Weinerman, 1988). The teacher should avoid standing in front of windows since this too will create a shadow so that the student may not be able to lipread for information (Northcott, 1973). Lecturing during a movie should also be discouraged since the child would have no visual imput (Weinerman, 1988).

Generally a teacher's voice is sufficiently loud so that the student can hear, but should the teacher have a relatively quiet voice, or should the room have a lot of background noise, the teacher may wish to use an FM system so that background noise is diminished and the teacher's voice is emphasized. An FM system is an auditory amplification system which is both compact in size and portable in use. It is designed to transmit and amplify the teacher's message through the use of radio waves. The system will provide the student with direct imput from the teacher regardless of where the teacher stands in the room.

While a teacher's voice often projects so that all the students can hear, many students have faint voices which makes it difficult for the hearing impaired student to follow classroom discussions. When a quiet student provides an answer, the classroom teacher then needs to make a judgement call. If the teacher suspects that the hearing impaired student has not heard the answer one of two things can be done. If the classmate is timid and generally doesn't answer, it may be too embarassing for the child to repeat the answer even if it is correct. The teacher should then just repeat the answer so that all can hear and then proceed. If the student providing the answer has self confidence, then it would be wise for the teacher to encourage the student to repeat the answer so that all students can hear what was said. The classroom teacher and the itinerant teacher may even work out a time when the itinerant teacher can work right in the classroom. The itinerant teacher may assist in presenting a unit or working with a small group of students.

The next area of concern deals with giving directions. If the student doesn't follow oral directions well, the student probably won't do well in the class. If the teacher would write assignments on the board, this could greatly benefit the hearing impaired child as well as other children in the classroom, who may miss hearing all the directions. This is also helpful for the itinerant teacher since s/he could then have the student copy the assignment and more time could be used on going over the assignment than on tracking down the teacher to clarify an assignment which was not understood. Another technique for getting classroom assignments is to appoint or have the student pick a buddy. This buddy is another student who could relay all assignments to the student should s/he miss what the teacher said. Additional tasks that the teacher may have the buddy do may include taking notes and informing the student of intercom messages. Buddies are also good to have to help the student make the transition from one subject to another. The hearing impaired student may not always hear the teacher state that books should be put away or that the class needs to get ready for the next class. A buddy can help the hearing impaired child know that its time to end one class and move on to another. The classroom teacher needs to be aware if the student has fluctuating hearing loss due to colds or other medical reasons. If this is the case some of these modifications may be necessary only during those times.

Another factor to consider is the directions given for completing an assignment. Multiple directions are quite common in the classroom and occasionally will appear on worksheets. Highlighting multiple directions in different colors may be enough of a reminder for the student to check his/her paper (Flynn, Note 2). The visual clue of different colors may prompt the student to remember that s/he must do several tasks on the assignment.

One last factor to consider is test taking. The itinerant teacher and the classroom teacher need to sit down and discuss what kind of tests will be given, along with where and how the student will take them. The format of one kind of test may be easier for the hearing impaired student as opposed to another. Oral tests and test material taken from auditory sources such as records and movies may need to be modified or perhaps administered by the itinerant teacher so that the student has the optimum opportunity and is therefore not penalized for having a hearing impairment (Weinerman, 1988). The itinerant teacher may need to modify the language or vocabualry level used in the test so that the student can identfy it with the content that the classroom teacher has taught. Again prior planning with each teacher contributing information about the situation and the student is always best.

The itinerant teacher may also have a good relationship with the parent and may be able to suggest ways that the classroom teacher can utilize parent insight and services. Many parents are aware of the different learning styles their youngsters use and are more than willing to help out as best they can.

Inservicing techniques for the student fall into two categories. Those for the whole class and those for the hearing impaired child. Since the teacher may be modifying some things in the classroom, it would be helpful if the whole class knew why these things are being done. These inservices should be arranged between the classroom teacher and the itinerant teacher. An audiologist may also be invited to participate should one be available in the area. The most basic topic is again the audiogram. The audiogram provides the opportunity to explain why there is a need for a hearing aid and what the hearing aid does. It also might help the hearing impaired student to know that other students may also have hearing problems. Students may have medical hearing problems, tubes, surgery and need to be aware that a hearing aid is only one alternative. Should the student be using an FM system, this also should be explained. Allowing hands-on exploration and discovery is an opportunity for a meaningful positive learning experience. The students need to be aware of where to place themselves when talking or playing with the hearing impaired student. The inservice also needs to include the purpose of why they need to let the hearing impaired student see their faces.

The hearing impaired student has as many responsibilities in this triad as the two teachers. First this student must understand that although s/he has a hearing impairment, the requirement to complete all the assignments is the same as that of the other students. If modifications are made by the two teachers the hearing impaired student should be informed of what the modifications are and why it was felt these changes needed to be made. The student needs to make sure s/he understands all assignments and knows when they are due. The itinerant teacher can waste a lot of time if it is necessary to track down a teacher just to check on assignments. The student needs to take responsibility for his/her hearing aid(s) and/or FM systems. Children as young as kindergarteners can learn how to do this. Hearing impaired students need to learn appropriate coping techniques for when they don't hear something. Many times this means developing the confidence to say that they did not hear something and need to have it repeated. The student needs to learn this skill both when the teacher is talking and when fellow classmates are talking.

Each hearing impaired student, each classroom teacher and each itinerant teacher is unique. While some of these suggestions may work in some schools they may not work in others. Just as the classroom teacher has a bag of techniques for getting a point across to the class, so does an itinerant teacher have a bag of suggestions to give to the teachers. Each person in the triad has important skills and each person needs to be respected for their skills. This triad can accomplish many things but it does not stand alone. The triad depends on the strong support of parents, other students, school administration, and ancillary personnel, such as audiologists and speech pathologists. With good communication and cooperation from all, the hearing impaired student can have a successful educational program.

Reference Notes

1. Ginsberg, E. & Sanborn, S. Growing Up Hearing Impaired: Becoming Your Own Case Manager. Paper presented at the Convention of American Instructors for the Deaf, Santa Fe, N. M., July, 1987.
2. Flynn, J. Color Coding. LaCrosse, WI.: Comprehensive Child Care Center, 1988.

References

Davis, J. Our Forgotten Children: Hard-ofHearing Pupils in the Schools. Minneapolis, MN: U.S. Office of Education, 1977.

Giorig, A. Getting Through. Chicago: Zenith Radio Corp., 1971.

Northcott, W. H. The Hearing Impaired in a Regular Classroom: Preschool, Elementary and Secondary Years. Washington, D.C.: Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf, 1973.

Orlansky, J. Z. Mainstreaming the Hearing Impaired Child. Austin, TX: Learning Concepts, 1977.

Stowe, G. N. & Associates. How They Hear: The Sounds of Abnormal Hearing. Northbrook, IL: RCA Victor, 1964.

Weinerman, S. The Forgotten Pupil. Shhh Journal, 1988, 9(1), 23-24.

Please Don't Ignore the Adult In Me! Using Human Resource Development (HRD) Training Strategies to Enhance Transfer of Inservice Learning

Jeniece E. Nelson
104 Moore Building
The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, PA 16802
814-863-1624

Running Head: Transfer of Training

A Paper presented at the American Council on Rural Special Education Conference, Ft. Lauderdale, Florida, March 1989.

Abstract

A critical question facing Human Resource Development (HRD) professionals who design and deliver inservice training for special education teachers in rural schools is "What can be done to ensure that the skills learned and practiced during training will result in behavior changes once the trainees return to their classroom? The issue here is transfer of training, the application of training on-the-job. Transfer may be a particularly challenging issue in rural schools because schools are often located in areas where access to educational agencies, and even trained teachers, is not readily available to recent trainees. This paper discusses the concepts of HRD, andragogy (adult learning), and transfer of training as factors to be considered when designing trainings for special education teachers in rural schools. Transfer strategies recommended by HRD and staff development professionals are listed. Finally, some results from a transfer of training survey which asked teachers to list factors which assisted them most in implementing their recent inservice training, are presented from 44 Trainable Mentally Handicapped (TMH) and Severely Profoundly Handicapped (SPH) teachers across rural Kentucky.

Please Don't Ignore the Adult In Me! Using Human Resource Development (HRD) Training Strategies to Enhance Transfer of Inservice Learning

Introduction

A critical question facing HRD professionals who design and deliver special education teacher inservice training in rural schools is "What can be done to ensure that the skills learned and practiced during training will result in behavior changes once the trainees return to their classroom? This question is extremely important because schools invest large amounts of money and time for inservice training (Wood & Thompson, 1980).

A study of three urban school districts reported training dollars spent per teacher at levels between $1,000 and $1,700 (Hyde & Moore, 1982). Expectations would be that those trained would use what they have learned on their job, and that there would be clear evidence to substantiate the use of the new skills. However, Georgenson (1982) estimated that only 10% of content presented in training is reflected in behavioral changes on the job.

Rural schools are faced with problems such as geograhic location, scarce professional resources, and administrators who may be uncertain about their role in helping their teachers implement new curriculum changes for special education students (Helge, 1984). As a result of these and other barriers encountered in rural settings, teachers returning from inservice training may be discouraged from using new knowledge and skills.

This concept paper provides a review and discussion of the concepts of HRD, andragogy (adult learning), and transfer of training (the application of training on the job); based on the assumption that these are important issues to consider when designing inservice trainings for special education teachers in rural schools.

Two strategies are used in selecting the information that is presented: a) a review of the literature in education, staff development, and management, and b) an analysis of some results from a survey of rural Trainable Mentally Handicapped (TMH) and Severely Profoundly Handicapped (SPH) teachers about which factors helped them

most in implementing new training from a recent inservice (transfer of training).

HRD and Andragogy

HRD is the systematic expansion through planned learning activities, of people's work-related abilities focused on improving job performance and individual growth (Jones, 1981; Nadler, 1984). HRD activities are those that are traditionally planned and conducted by staff development professionals employed by the school district or State Office of Education. Some of these activities are providing inservice training, career development and personal growth opportunities. Decisions regarding the focus of HRD activites are generally determined by administering a needs analysis to teachers and administrators in the school district.

Knowle's (1984a and 1984b) theory of andragogy contains some useful information for planning an inservice training. The andragogy theory suggests that there is something distinctively different about how adults learn as compared to youth.

The theory is based on several assumptions. They are

1. Adults need to know why they need to learn the content that is being presented.
2. Adults have a self-concept of being self-driven and capable of being responsible for their own decisions.
3. Adults enter each learning activity with a greater volume of previous experiences than youth.
4. Adults come to the learning situation ready to learn.
5. Adults are more life-centered (task oriented or problem-centered in their orientation to learning and are motivated to devote more time and energy if they perceive that what they are learning will help them deal with their life situations.
6. Adults are motivated by internal pressures such as increased job satisfaction, self esteem, quality of life.

Knowles (1984b) recommended that these assumptions be carefully considered in the design of HRD learning experiences, in order to enhance transfer of learning.

Factors Which Affect Transfer of Training

How do we enhance transfer of training,(the degree to which an individual uses the knowledge and skills learned in training on the job), considering what we know about HRD and andragogy?

Many factors are described in the management and education literature which affect transfer of training. Annett and Sparrow (1985) and Noe (1986) addressed the importance of the learner's motivation, attitudes about the environment, values, and cognition on affecting transfer. Noe (1986) stated that:

> Positive reactions of trainees, learning, behavior change, and improvements in job-related outcomes are expected from well-designed and administered training programs. However, the attitudes, interests, values, and expectations of trainees may attenuate or enhance the effectiveness of training. Determining the specific individual characteristics that influence the effectiveness of training is important if we are to understand how to increase the likelihood that behavior change and performance improvement will result from participants in training programs. (p 727)

He further stated:

> Trainees are likely motivated to transfer new skills to the work situation when they are confident in using the skills, are aware of work situations in which demonstration of the new skills is appropriate, perceive that job performance improvements may likely occur as a result of use of the new skills, and believe that the knowledge and skills emphasized in the training program are helpful in solving work-related problems and frequent job demands. (p. 743)

Other factors have been suggested as affecting transfer of training.

Berger (1985a), Showers (1983), and Zemke and Gunkler (1985) discussed the importance of attending to the design

of training and elements in the learning environment for facilitating the use of new skills and knowledge on the job. Some of these elements are the need to:

1. Conduct a thorough needs analysis of the trainee, the boss, the work environment, and the organization so that the training is what is needed to solve job-related concerns (Robinson & Robinson, 1985).
2. Explain the goals and expectations of the training at the beginning of the first day of the inservice (Zemke & Gunkler 1985).
3. Use recursive training designs: making the process of education reflect (be congruent with) the subject being taught (Hiebert & Smallwood, 1983).
4. Use life-like situations from the job produces a more real experience for training. This strategy is also called the use of identical elements which states, "the greater the similarity between the training and operational environment the greater the transfer of training" (Zemke & Gunkler, 1985, p. 56).
5. Use projects to reinforce learning which are directly related to the job (Knowles, 1984: Kruger & May, 1986; Zemke & Gunkler, 1985).
6. Use goal setting (Wexley & Baldwin, 1986): and contracts (Knowles, 1984a) that clearly outline new behaviors once the trainee returns to work.
7. Use coaching - a supervisor or master teacher along with the newly trained teacher should state expectations, set goals for using new skills. The coach should give feedback on progress toward using new skills, encourage and praise, and demonstrate new teaching behaviors when nesessary (Zemke & Gunkler, 1985; Joyce & Showers, 1983).
8. Use the Relapse Prevention Model (Marx, 1982) or the Forecasting the problem of transfer throughout the training process strategy (Joyce & Showers, 1983). Trainees are encouraged to be aware of the relapse process itself by having them identify situations that are likely to deter their attempts to use their new skills. They are then taught a variety of coping skills that will help them continue to use the training, as well as prevent them from not using the training.
9. Staff development activites should take place at the building level so that teachers can work in small groups where sharing of ideas and collegial relationships can develop (Nickolai-Mays & Davis,1986).

Broad (1982), Garmston (1987), Georgenson (1982), and McEvoy (1987) recognized the importance of supervisory support in affecting transfer of training. McEvoy (1987) stated:

> Principals seemed to convey support for their teachers in general attitude as well as in informal conversation. Teachers, in turn, reported a willingness to experiment with new or innovative techniques because they felt their principals were supportive and would not penalize them for experiments that failed. (p. 76)

Principals and local education agency coordinators may not understand all of the learning objectives for special education students, however their willingness to learn and support their teacher's efforts to implement new training into the classroom program is a tremendous start.

Finally, Howey and Vaughan (1983) and Robinson and Robinson (1985) discussed how organizational variables such as money for materials and equipment, and the development of school policies to support new instructional programs, affect transfer of training. These variables are often difficult to manage, and help from parents, school board members, and community leaders is needed.

Berger (1985a) summarized all of the major factors which affect transfer into an "impact" formula:

(L x LE) x (B x O) = IMPACT

Each factor is briefly summarized below.

L = Learner
- knowledge, skills, cognition
- attitudes, values
- motivation
- reaction to the training
- perception of usefulness of training

LE = Learning Environment
- physical environment
- adult learning strategies
- design, development, content, materials, activities of training

- evaluation plan for enhancing transfer, follow-up
- objectives aligned with organizational and people needs

B - Boss
- his/her needs on the job for organization
- supportive immediate supervisor, willing to allow trainee to use new knowledge and skills
- reinforce, encourage, and reward training

O - Organization
- preparedness of system to implement training
- rules, culture, attitudes, resources
- money
- supportive staff

The next section will discuss some of the results from a transfer of training survey of 44 TMH and SPH teachers across rural Kentucky. The discussion will begin with a brief description of Project SPLASH (a statewide inservice for TMH and SPH teachers in Kentucky) and conclude with a list of recommended training strategies, to enhance transfer in rural schools.

Perceptions of TMH and SPH Teachers in Rural Kentucky Regarding Factors Which Affected Transfer in Project SPLASH

Project SPLASH (Strategies for Programming Longitudinally for All Severely Handicapped) is a 10-day statewide inservice training for TMH and SPH teachers in Kentucky, designed to assist with implementing a more functional community-based program of studies for students with moderate and severe handicaps. SPLASH consists of three modules (Attitudes and Behavior Management; Communication Development; Curriculum Considerations). The SPLASH training curriculum components are:

1. strategies for developing a functional age-appropriate curriculum,
2. assessing critical skills in natural settings,
3. designing behavioral objectives,
4. data collection,
5. principles of non-aversive behavior management,
6. successful learning and teaching strategies,

7. development of communication skills in natural settings,
8. presenting individualized instruction within groups,
9. conducting ecological inventories.
10. designing instructional programs in community settings
11. resolving administrative issues related to community-based instruction, and
12. parent involvement and life-planning concerns.

Sixty-eight teachers who had participated in the SPLASH training were surveyed and asked to list five factors which provided the most assistance in helping them implement SPLASH (transfer of training). Forty-four teachers responded to the question. However, not all of the teachers listed 5 factors. The teachers listed 27 different factors which provided them the most assistance in terms of implementing SPLASH. The findings are presented in Table 1. When the 27 factors were ranked according to the number of teachers mentioning the factor, the following nine received the highest number of responses:

Insert Table 1 about here

---

1 - "hands on" practice (17)

2 - local catalogue/notebook (13)
teacher's experience, interests, or education (13)
sharing and mentioning with other teachers (13)

3 - money (10)
coordinator (10)
a trainer (10)

4 - principal (9)

5 - small group simulations and feedback (8)

Many of the factors mentioned above were previously described in the management and education literature as affecting transfer.

Recommended Training Strategies for Enhancing Transfer in Rural Areas

On the basis of the results from this study, review of the management and education literature and consultation with SPLASH trainers and trainees, ten transfer of training strategies are proposed for consideration when designing and delivering inservice training, especially those conducted in rural schools:

1. A component for "hands on" practice with the type of students in the teacher's class.
2. Provide plenty of written materials related to the topic, including sample lesson plans that have been developed by participants in the training (local catalogues).
3. Offer the inservice to teachers who are interested and motivated to participate in the training.
4. Provide opportunities for teachers to share ideas and mentor one another. This allows them to begin talking about transfer before they leave the training. Mentoring opportunities (completing assignments in small supportive groups) often provide the foundation for continued support that teachers need, to continue transfering the new skills weeks and months after the training. Use a newsletter to encourage the sharing of ideas, after the training.
5. Teachers need money to implement the training. Therefore, a budget should be committed to them before they attend the inservice. This way, they can plan their new instructional program during the training, based upon the budget.
6. Coordinators and principals should have a preview of the training. This will help them understand their role in supporting their teacher's effort to implement the training.
7. Multiple training strategies should be used such as small group simulations, role plays, and lectturettes.
8. Transfer Action Plan (Relapse Prevention Model) - Teachers should return to their classroom with a transfer action plan. Barriers to transfer should be discussed before the teacher returns to the classroom.
9. Principles of andragogy should be incorporated in the design of the training.
10. Teachers should be encouraged to evaluate the effectiveness of inservice training in terms of what helped them transfer the skills once they returned to the job.

Although the transfer of training strategies presented above are proposed for inservice trainings in rural schools, they are also effective in urban settings.

Conclusions and Summary

The primary reason for studying transfer is to help teachers use their new skills and knowlege in the classroom, to educate handicapped students. Transfer, is a challenge to achieve in all trainings, but can be particularly difficult in rural settings. Schools are often located in areas where there are few other education agencies or trained teachers that might help with implementing new training. When confronted with barriers such as lack of support, money resources, or even uncertainty about some of the material covered in the training, it may be difficult to follow-through with new skills and knowledge.

Using principles of adult learning theory in the design and delivery of inservice training enhances transfer. "Hands on" practice with actual students provides a real learning situation. If sharing of ideas and peer-mentoring are encouraged during the training the liklihood that these relationshps will continue after the training is greater. Thus, offering a tremendous source of support for transfer. Offering the training to teachers who are interested in the content of the training is important to consider. And, finally, principal and coordinator support enhance transfer, by providing the leadership that teachers need to try new teaching approaches.

REFERENCES

Annett, J., & Sparrow, J. (1985). Transfer of training: A review of research and practical implications. Programmed Learning and Educational Technology, 22(2), 116-124.

Berger, M. (1985a). Notes taken from a lecture in HRD-3360, Instructional Strategies, Peabody College, Vanderbilt University.

Berger, M. (1985b). Notes taken from a lecture in HRD-3350, Introduction to Human Resource Development, Peabody College, Vanderbilt University.

Broad, M. (1982). Management actions to support transfer of training. Training and Development Journal, 36(5), 124-130.

Garmston, R. (1987). How administrators support peer coaching. Educational Leadership, 44(5), 18-26.

Georgenson, D. L. (1982). The problem of transfer calls for partnership. Training and Development Journal, 36(10), 75-78.

Helge, D. (1984). The State of the Art of Rural Special Education. Exceptional Children, 50:294-305.

Hiebert, M. B., & Smallwood, W. M. (1983). Training design by design: Why we come back to recursiveness. Training and Development Journal, 37(8), 31-35.

Howey, K. R., & Vaughan, J. (1983). Current patterns of staff development. In G. A. Griffin (Ed.), Staff development: Eighty second yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Vol. 2, pp. 92-117). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Hyde, A., & Moore, D. (1982). Making sense of staff development: An analysis of staff development programs and their costs in three urban school districts. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No ED 211 629)

Jones, J. (1981). Human resource development: What it is and how to become involved. In J. Jones & W. Pfeiffer (Eds.), The 1981 handbook for group facilitators (pp. 118-192). San Diego: University Associates.

Joyce, B., 7 Showers, B. (1983). Power in staff development through research on training. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Knowles, M. (1984a). Andragogy in action. Washington, DC: Jossey-Bass.

Knowles, M. (1984b). The adult learner: A neglected species. Houston: Gulf Publishing Co.

Kruger, M., & May, G. (1986). Transfer of learning in management and training: Building the payoff into the instructional design. Performance and Instructional Journal, 25(3), 3-6.

Marx, R. D. (1982). Relapse prevention of managerial training: A model for maintenance of behavior change. Academy of Management Review, 7, 433-441.

McEvoy, B. (1987). Everyday acts: How principals influence staff development. Educational Leadership, 44(5), 73-77.

Nadler, L. (1984). Human resource development. In L. Nadler (Ed.), The handbook of human resource development (pp. 1.1-1.47). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Neil, R. (1985). In-service teacher education: Five common causes of failure. Actions in Teacher Education, 7(3), 49-55.

Nickolai-Mays, S., & Davis, J. (1986). In-service training of teachers in multicultural urban schools: A systematic model. Urban Education, 21(2), 169-179.

Noe, R. (1986). Trainees' attributes and attitudes: Neglected influences on training effectiveness: Academy of Management Review, 11(4), 736-749.

Phillips, J. J. (1984). Handbook of training evaluation and measurement methods. Houston: Gulf Publishing Co.

Robinson, D., & Robinson, J. (1985). Breaking barriers to skill transfer. Training and Development Journal, 39 (1), 82-83.

Showers, B. (1983). Transfer of training: The contribution of coaching. Eugene, OR: The University of Oregon Center of Educational Policy and Management.

Wexley (1984). Personnel training. Annual Review of Psychology, 35, 519-51.

Wexley, K. N., & Baldwin, T. T. (1986). Posttraining strategies for facilitating positive transfer: An empirical exploration. Academy of Management Journal, 29(3), 503-520.

Wood, F. H., & Thompson, S. R. (1980). Guidelines for Better Staff Development, Educational Leadership, 37(2), 374-378.

Zemke, R., & Gunkler, J. (1985). 28 techniques for transforming training into performance. Training, 11(4), 48-63.

Table 1

Rank and Frequency for each factor reported as Providing Assistance in Implementing Splash.

Rank	n	Factor
1	17	"Hands on" practice
2	13	Local catalogue and notebooks
	13	The teachers' experiences, education, interests
	13	Sharing and mentoring with other SPLASH teachers
3	10	Money
	10	Coordinator
	10	Trainers
4	9	Principal
5	8	Small group simulations and feedback
	8	Classroom aide
6	7	Developing instructional programs
7	6	Sharing and mentoring with trainers
	6	Parents
8	5	The training director of SPLASH
	5	Training
9	4	Supportive staff (psych, nurse, sec.)
	4	Transportation
	4	Speech thrapist
9	4	Nonhandicapped peer-teacher
	4	Lecturettes
10	3	Community
11	2	Consultation time
12	1	College instructor

The British 1981 Education Act and its Implementation in a Rural County in Wales

Derek R. Newbury
District Educational Psychologist
Powys County Council

This paper seeks to share with American colleagues some initial experiences of the interpretation of the 1981 Education Act in a rural Welsh Local Education Authority.

The British Educational System

It might perhaps be helpful to give a very brief overview of mainstream education in Britain for colleagues who are not familiar with this.

Schools are divided between the State and Independent sectors. Independent sector schools are fee paying and are attended by about 6% of the school population. Their general influence tends to be stronger than this minority attendance would indicate however. From the special education point of view our interest in them will be negligible except to note that if we are considering the context of special education it will be necessary to remember that our more right wing governments, such as the one which we have had for the past ten years, tend to look to the model of academic excellence espoused by many of these schools for their exemplars of good practice.

The State school system attended by the majority of children is divided between primary and secondary sectors. The primary sector (ages 4/5y to 11y) has traditionally been the most progressive area of our educational system with child-centred methods. A visitor to a typical school would see the children engaged in relatively formal work in maths. and literacy skills in the mornings with the afternoons being given over to more active cross-curricular and project based activities. Critics maintain that this is too often disorganised and that standards in the "basics" suffer as a consequence.

From the end of the last War until the mid-sixties, secondary education was divided between grammar and secondary modern schools. Admission to grammar schools was by a competitive examination taken by pupils at 11y with approximately 30% of children being selected. Over the last two decades however the 11+ examination has all but dissappeared and most secondary education now occurs in comprehensive schools which cater for all children between 11 and 18 years. Many children leave school at 16. Perhaps the main issue for colleagues in comprehensive schools has been to move away from what was in effect a watered-down grammar school academic curriculum towards more differentiated curricula to meet the needs of all pupils. Perhaps not surprisingly the most frequent criticism levelled at them has been that they aim too much for the middle ground and fail to meet the needs of the most and the least able. Our present Goverment has been especially critical of the failure of comprehensive schools to produce sufficiently qualified young people to meet the needs of industry.

Administration of the State System

At present State education is administered by some 50 Local Education Authorities (LEA's), roughly the equivalent of U.S. School Districts, whose boundaries generally co-incide with the Counties of England and Wales. These range in size from those with child populations of 150,000 or more down to very small LEA's such as Powys in mid-Wales with barely 20,000 children. For the time being these LEA's control most expenditure on education and much of the administration of such important functions as hire of personnel. Goverment power is exercised by the allocation of general and specific finances and by Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools whose reports on individual schools and general educational issues carry considerable weight. Each school does have a managerial body of local people but until recently they have exercised only minimal power.

All this will soon change quite radically however and I will consider these changes in more detail later.

The Place of Special Education

Special education within the system noted above has occupied an essentially marginal position. By and large special education was seen as a process occuring off-site of mainstream campuses. This was frequently reinforced by the siting of special schools. In my own area, for example, our most recent special school building, an imaginatively designed school for children with severe learning difficulties has nontheless been sited on the very edge of town between an electricity sub-station and an abandoned canal. Isolated country houses have frequently been converted for special schooling. Even where special education has taken place

within a mainstream school, it is frequently to be found, with some difficulty, in the least accessible part of the school. The special class as cupboard under the stage or partitioned corridor end has been a familiar sight.

This low and marginal status has extended to those of us involved in special education. "Backward class: backward teacher" has been the jibe offered only partially in jest.

To set against this however has been a growing professionalism and confidence amongst special educators (inspired in part by the work and energy of our colleagues in the U.S.A.) As a growing range of developments in teaching techniques has been aquired it has been possible for special educators to take on the role of "expert". To some extent this has had disadvantages. Mainstream teachers have perceived this growing expertise as an indication of their own comparative lack of skill in supporting children with disabilities hence reinforcing once again the view of special education as a marginal issue, albeit occupying somwhat higher status than previously.

Such then was the background to the passing of the legislation a description of which comprises the main purpose of this paper.

The Warnock Report and the 1981 Education Act

In the mid seventies the Secretary of State for Education, then Margaret Thatcher, established a Royal Commission on Special Education under the chairmanship of Mary Warnock. The Report of this Commission, published in 1978, supplied the basis for the Act which followed it in 1981. Needless to say, the recommendations of the Warnock Committee were the subject of some considerable political negotiation prior to their translation into the Act. To save being unduly repetitious this paper will concentrate on the provisions of the Act noting the influence of the Warnock Committee recommendations as appropriate. American colleagues will note the timing of these events which paralleled but slightly followed the passing of U.S. Public Law 94-142.

The main provisions of the Act were as follows:

1. Definition of Special Education

The Act defines special education by reference to the special needs of individual children. Special education is said to be required if the child has a learning difficulty. A learning difficulty is defined as a difficulty with learning which is significantly greater than that ofthe majority of children of that age. Causal factors are not included in the definition except to exclude a learning difficulty due solely to a difference between the language of the home and the the language of instruction.

The concept of "special educational need" was one of the basic Warnock propositions. Hitherto assessment of disabled pupils was essentially aimed at their categorisation into diagnostic groups such as, "physically handicapped", "educationally sub-normal (mild or severe)" or "maladjusted". The Act specifically mandated that the assessment of a child was to be based upon an assessment of educational needs arising from a disability rather than on ascertainment of the disability itself.

This stands in direct contrast to the PL 94-142 provisions.

In fact the Warnock recommendations broadened definitions still further in that it was estimated that up to 20% of children would have a "special need" at some time within their school career. The effect of this new definition in terms of needs rather than categories has been quite salutary. As Selfe(1985) notes, while a "maladjusted" boy might be directed to a school for "maldjusted" pupils, "can we convincingly state that a boy with behavioural difficulties needs a single sex residential setting with fifty other boys with similar problems"

Exact interpretation of this definition has not been attempted by central Goverment and each LEA has had make its own decisions as to what should or should not count as special educational need. Interpretations have varied quite widely.

2. The Duty to Identify and Assess

The Act imposes on LEA's the duty to identify and assess the special needs of children, where necessary from two years of age (or younger if requested by parents). Managers of schools are charged with the duty of ensuring that their schools have adequate procedures to serve this function, and school medical officers (the community section of our N.H.S.) have the duty of notifying LEA's of pupils likely to have a special need.

The major shift here has been in the move away from legislation which gave permission for such activities to take place, to a mandatory activity.

3. The Assessment Process; The Statement

As with American legislation, the Act lays down very precise procedures for the assessment process. The initial stage is the gaining of parental permission for an assessment together with the preparation by parents of a report outlining their own views of their child's needs. This report is then sent to all professionals concerned with the child, who also submit written evidence. As a minimum these professional reports must include a medical report and reports by the educational psychologist and the child's teachers.

These views are summarised on a document termed the "draft" Statement which is sent to the parents together with copies of all professional reports. The parents are able to negotiate further over the contents of the Statement but once agreed the draft becomes the actual Statement for the child subject to annual review.

An important provision of the Act explicitly states that the assessment of the child and recommendations that follow are to be made independently of any consideration of the provision likely to be available.

The Statement is analagous to the IEP although in many cases American colleagues would find the usual Statement to be very much less detailed than the IEP.

The Statement is subject to appeal by parents to an LEA panel and ultimately to the Secretary of State for Education.

This appeal system has as yet been used only very infrequently and the U.K. educational system is generally very much less subject to litigation than would be the case in the U.S.A.(Stobart and Daly, 1985) To date the only major clarifiation of the Act made through legal process has been a judgement which has indicated that the inclusion of non-educational provision, speech therapy support in the case in question, on a child's Statement is valid.

American colleagues may also be interested to know that the time limitataions set down in the Act relate predominantly to the periods of time in which parents may raise objections at various stages in the process. There are no time limits set for the preparation of professional reports nor for the production of the full Statement. This has created opportunities for bureaucratic delay with parents sometimes waiting many months for their child's Statement.

4. Special Educational Provision: Integration

The Act directs that the LEA will make available to the child whatever special educational support has been agreed on the Statement. This in itself is a far clearer mandation of special provision than obtained through previous legislation.

The major shift however, one which parallels the U.S. emphasis on "least restrictive environment", is the requirement of the Act that such provision be made on an integrated basis subject to three conditions;

a. that such provision is compatible with meeting the child's special needs,

b. that no unreasonable expense is involved,
c. that such provision does not disrupt the education of other pupils.

It will cause no surprise that it is this requirement to integrate that has provoked most anticipation, concern and dissention.

It might be noted that the Warnock Committee had set down its own version of a least restrictive environment with its definition of "locational" (special education on the same site as mainstream but with only limited interaction of pupils), "social" (as for locational but more extensive and deliberate opportunities for social mixing) and "functional" (special education occuring temporally and spatially within a mainstream setting) forms of integration.

5. Resources

Other than the provision concerning the expense of integration noted above, the Act makes no mention of resources. As yet, the U.K. has no funding based on Average Daily Attendance as in the States and hence no parallel with additional ADA funding for disabled pupils. Indeed the preamble to the Parliamentary Bill which preceeded the Act specifically states that no significant additional expenditure was envisaged as a result of proposals made by the Bill. Apart from some limited funding for in-service training, no additional Goverment spending has been allocated in relation to the provisions of the Act.

Views on the issue of resources have varied considerably. Teaching unions have argued strongly for integration, but only in so far as it is supported by additional funding. Others have argued that a concentration on lack of resources has distracted attention from the main issues raised by the Act. (N.U.T., 1985)

While the respective legislation of the U.S.A. and the U.K. are similar in their intent to provide a more clearly structured basis for the education of disabled pupils and share moves towards mainstreaming/integration and greater involvement of parents, they differ in some important respects. These include their approaches to funding, the move away from categorisation of U.K. pupils, and the more important role of the judicial process in the American appeals procedure.

Some experiences in the implication of this legislation in a rural LEA will now be outlined.

Implementation of the 1981 Act; the Powys experience

Powys is a Welsh LEA and county some 40 miles wide and 100 miles long lying along much of the Welsh/English border. English is the majority language with Welsh being the home language of about 5% of our children. The county is predominantly given over to hill farming and forestry. Sheep outnumber people by a factor of 10 to 1. There are a number of small towns but none have a population greater than 7,000.

There are 13 high schools with from 450 to 1000 pupils and approximately 125 primary schools with numbers ranging from 20 to larger units of 200+ pupils.

Special education in the traditional sense takes place in two schools for children with severe learning difficulties, and two residential schools for children with moderate learning difficulties in association with familial/social problems. In addition there are several formal units for children with learning difficulties in mainstream primary schools and each high school has a remedial department staffed by 1 or 2 full-time teachers.

Four educational psychologists operate on an area basis and each is responsible for a team of 5/6 peripatetic remedial teachers who work in primary schools. A team of peripatetic specialists in the education of the deaf work in units and the whole system generally. There is no specialist provision for the visually handicapped. Pupils with major physical disabilities, and bright children with emotional difficulties have been placed in residential schools outside of the County although numbers involved are small.

The administrative arrangements for special education in Powys are made, in effect, by a small team comprising the four psychologists and an assistant director of education.

The factors which this group had to consider included:

a. a widely dispersed population
b. limited finacial resources, first because Powys is a minor LEA and secondly because the of prolonged cuts in real expenditure imposed by central goverment. This could be off-set, to some extent, by the contractual nature of the Statement which gave some scope for the LEA to provide additional resources to <u>individual</u> children
c. a stable and able teaching force albeit with only limited general expertise in special education
d. "pools" of special expertise "locked-up" in our special schools
e. a strong sense of community with schools generally being unwilling to see their pupils consigned to an institutional special educational setting
f. strongly polarised local views as to the merits of integration.

g. little clear research evidence as to the efficacy of different modes of special education delivery(Topping,1983)

With these factors in mind an early decision was made to use a "bottom-up" model of change; to let structural changes evolve rather than be imposed from above. This model carries with it a certain degree of re-assurance in terms of maintainance of the status quo but presents dangers of the effects of inertia particularly in a rural area with strong local traditions.

Essentially this model has lead to the development of a three-pronged strategy for the development of special education within the County.

a. In-service training. An initial in-service programme was established on a county basis to increase the awareness of all staff relating to special needs pupils and the effects of the 1981 Act. Subsequent in-service has been carefully targeted to consolidate the pools of expertise available to the LEA. In this way it was hoped to make maximum use of limited training funds. Thus in 1987 the main thrust has been the training of a cohort of remedial teachers in techniques to support pupils with a specific learning disability. Additionally in-service training has been given to teachers receiving a pupil with a particular disabilty into their class for the first time.

b. Progressive integration of pupils The letter and spirit of the Act have been carefully applied to each pupil newly assessed under its procedures. Every effort has been made to meet needs identified within a mainstream setting. This approach utilised the financial pragmatics of a situation where minor sums of money could be made available to support individual pupils but cash was not available for large scale LEA based initiatives. More importantly it was hoped that this approach would enable mainstream staff to aquire a positive experience (cf. Hellier,1988) of integration through being actively involved in the process. It was felt that mainstream staff with such "positive experiences" would be far better proponents of integration in the eyes of their peers than advisory or administrative colleagues.

c. Integration of provision The Warnock report emphasised that integration was a concept that could be applied to forms of special educational provision as well as to individual children. The Powys LEA thus entered into a process of discussion with special educators to consider how special schools, special units and remedial staff might develop ways of working which would bring them closer to mainstream colleagues.

It is difficult if not impossible to be categoric about outcomes at this stage of the experience. The following comments are thus impressionistic only.

In the case of individual children there have undoubtedly been examples of apparently successful integration of pupils who might otherwise have attended a special school. The writer has recently been involved with a very disabled spastic child who has entered his local primary school. This has been achieved by providing full-time ancilliary classroom support, physical aids, a computer system, physiotherapy support in school and in-service training for all teachers in the school. This is providing a very positive experience for all concerned, including the LEA auditor since even intensive support such as this is cheaper than special school placement.

Some success has also been achieved in the support of low to very low ability children within mainstream primary classrooms. The school-based special units have all switched their role from a sanctuary model for a small group of children in full-time attendance, to a supportive function for a larger group of children who are based in mainstream classes. Where appropriate for low or behaviourally difficult children the LEA has provided up to half-time non-teaching assistance.

Success of this sort has been facilitated by the integrated day and project based methods of the primary school. Aronson and Bridgeman (1979) refer to the "jig-saw" classroom with each pupil contributing to a class project at his or her own level. This fits well with the philosophy of many primary educators.

Factors which increase the likelyhood of success include the social skills of the child, and the availability to the mainstream class teacher of an "expert" special educator to confirm the validity of the programmes being offered. Given this support, mainstream teachers have appeared to value the opportunity to enhance their own skills through having a disabled pupil in their class. Some have also spontaneously commented on the fact that mainstream pupils have benefitted from the experience of having a disabled child in their class, modelling the care in contact with the pupil shown by the teacher and, in some cases, appearing to generalise this concern to their contact with their more able peers.

That parents value the opportunity to have their child in a neighbourhood school is undoubted. A recent small scale survey of parents in the writer's area revealed that the achievement of at least local integration for their children was a prime objective for all of them. As one parent of a Down's syndrome boy put it, "I just didn't want him to be that little boy with a funny face whom the other childen saw going off to special school in the mini-bus every morning." Most parents in this rural community

felt that they themselves were cut-off from much of the village social life of their peers if their children did not attend the local school, often the centre of much social life. These aspects appeared to weigh more heavily than educators' advice about an adequate curriculum for their child.

The issue of an adequate curriculum is however of major concern. Even where low ability pupils are successfully integrated socially there are doubts about the delivery of basic skill training to them. Concerns about the lack of structure in some primary schools were noted at the beginning of this paper. Mager (1972) would find plenty of "fuzzies" in our primary classrooms. Behavioural, objectives-based methods have had only minimal impact in U.K. classrooms. (This "fuzziness" would also extend to many of the Statements written and remains an obstacle to true accountability.)

In Powys, it is the staff of the special schools who have acted as chief guardians of this concern for the quality of the curriculum available for special needs children. They have been active in developing outreach support schemes which have had two aims. The first has been to provide social integration for their own pupils: the second to explore with mainstream colleagues ways of developing the curriculum to facilitate adaptability to meet the needs of disabled pupils.

Arguably it is the achievement of a common language of the curriculum that offers greatest hope for the future of an integrated educational service.

Certainly it is the issue of curriculum adaptability which has been especially responsible for the least successful area of development of special needs provision within Powys. Provision at secondary level remains much as it was before the passing of the Act. Special education at this level is seen as taking place within the remedial departments only. These usually comprise a heterogeneous mixture of up to 10% of pupils, selected generally because of their failure on basic tests of literacy. Within these departments children with diverse needs resulting from low ability, specific learning disability, or nuisance value in mainstream classes, are given the same undifferentiated diet which often consists heavily of basic literacy skills work and only a limited range of the much wider curriculum available to their peers. In defence of secondary colleagues it should be noted that they have been heavily involved in many areas of change including the introduction of substantial changes to the public examination system, so that energies available have been much diverted.

Such then has been the essence of experience within Powys. The

1981 Act has certainly stimulated much debate and forced educators to become more actively involved with the community. Initial evidence certainly indicates that a more thoughtful and considered approach to special educational provision has resulted. With regard to the requirement to integrate some index of success may be gained from figures for the writer's own school district where less than 0.5% pupils are currently placed in a setting which may be described as segregated ie. is geographically separated from a mainstream school. This stands in contrast to a national figure of approximately 1.5% (Swann, 1988)

The 1988 Education Act

While the 1981 Act has enabled special educators some purchase upon a sense of direction and purpose in the development of their services, the ground rules on which they have based much of their thinking are now less certain following the introduction of radical reforms to the British educational system. These reforms establish a National Curriculum proscribed by content and time allocation for subject areas. "Benchmarks" for achievement are to be established at various age levels and national testing of these established. The results of these tests are to be published, primarily to enable parents to make a more considered decision about the school which their child should attend. The responsibility of school managers are to be extended and parents given a stronger position on these managing bodies. Mangement of most of the school's budget will be transferred from the LEA to these managing bodies. Essentially, central goverment is hoping that educational standards will be raised by the application of the laws of the market-place to the schools.

Limited mention has been made of pupils with special needs in this legislation or the initial guidance from central goverment so far issued. The best that would appear to be on offer is the possibility that children may be exempt from parts of the National Curriculum, or from the requirement to meet the benchmarks of attainment levels established. More optomistically it has been argued (Davis, 1988) that if the National Curriculum is viewed as an "entitlement" curriculum for all pupils, this may facilitate the curricular developments which it has been suggested above are a requirement of furthering the process of integration.

Conclusions

Educators working in a rural setting have the diminishing experience in Western urban society of experiencing the provision of a service to the community as a discrete readily identifiable geographical and social entity. Opportunities exist for face-to face contact with most or all of the participants in the educational process. For the special educator there is the chance

to see their pupils as members of this community and with a value in it. In the writer's setting for example, it has been a frequent experience to make home-visits to children defined as low ability pupils in their school settings and to become aware of the refinement and efficiency of their contribution to lambing or haymaking.

It is difficult to avoid contrasting this perception with their relative failure in school.

The experience of implementing the 1981 Act has highlighted this dilemma further. It is being learned to view children as presenting needs which make it difficult for them to access the curriculum determined as relevant for the majority of pupils rather than as a member of a handicap category. The need is determined by the curriculum as much as by factors within the child. The experience of integrating individual children has reminded us of the contribution they are able to make, albeit in ways which are often difficult to quantify, and which may easily be dismissed as sentimental.

It is this community dimension which rural special educators are uniquely placed to offer our more urban colleagues.

References

Aronson, E. and Bridgeman, D. (1979) Jigsaw groups and the desegregated classroom: In pursuit of common goals. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin. 5, 4.

Davis, J. (1988) Address to Powys teachers on the 1988 Education Act.

Department of Education and Science (1978) Report of a Committee of Enquiry into Special Education. (The Warnock Report) H.M.S.O. London

Mager, R. (1972) Goal Analysis. Fearon. New York

National Union of Teachers (1975) Negotiating for Special Needs

Topping, K. (1983) Educational Systems for Disruptive Adolescents. Croom Helm London

Selfe, L. (1985) Integration and the 1981 Act - A Conflict of Interests? Educ. Psychol. in Practice. 1 1

Stobart, G. and Daly, B. (1985) Mainstreaming and Integration - The American Lesson. Educ. Psychol in Practice. 1 2

Swann, W. (1988) in Oxford Review of Education.

Pyramidal Curricula for Severely Disabled Individuals:

An Overview

Gloria M. Palma, M.S.

Appalachian State University

Gloria M. Palma
Rm. 320
Department of Health, Physical Education
and Leisure Studies
Appalachian State University
Boone, NC 28608

Pyramidal Curricula for Severely Disabled Individuals: An Overview

ABSTRACT

Due to severity and degree of handicapping condition, severely/profoundly disabled individuals have unique needs and ability that are distinct from other disabled individuals. Consequently, a curriculum that is applicable to disabled individuals in general is often times inappropriate and non-functional when applied to severely disabled individuals. Currently, Tohatchi Special Education and Training Center in the Navajo Reservation is developing three curricula to meet the unique needs of its severely disabled students. Although the curricula were designed for three groups of students with different functioning levels, each curriculum is interrelated and interdependent of each other. Consequently, goals, objectives, and learning activities are progressive and hierarchical in nature. In effect, the curricula are pyramidal in structure and content.

Each of the curricula represents three groups of students with varying ages and functional abilities: (a) developmentally-delayed, (b) functional academics, and (c) vocational. The curriculum for the

developmentally-delayed group is currently on its printing stage, while the curricula for the other two groups are on the developmental stage. The curricula have unique features which include the following:

a. The curriculum was field-tested by the teaching staff during its developmental stage. Hence, objectives and learning activities were based upon the actual needs and ability of the students.

b. Paraprofessionals and teaching staff were provided with workshops during the curriculum's developmental stage. Consequently, the staff understood the content of the curriculum and how to field-test the objectives and activities.

c. The curriculum reflects the cultural philosophy of the Navajo people. Hence, some activities and terminologies in the content are cultural in nature.

d. Field-testing and implementation of the curriculum were conducted through a collaborative effort between the teaching and home-based staff. Packets of activities, based on the curriculum content, were developed by the home-based teacher for dissemination to parents.

e. The curriculum is open-ended. Teachers, paraprofessionals, and others are encouraged to add appropriate objectives and activities as long

as they are guided by the conceptual framework of the curriculum.

f. The curriculum is multi-disciplinary in nature. The team of developers are specialists from various subject areas: physical therapy, speech/audiology, severely disabled students, and adapted physical education. The content of the curriculum therefore reflects a multidisciplinary approach in terms of objectives and learning activities.

Students are expected to acquire a mastery level within and across the curricula. Progression to the next higher level of the curriculum is based on the competencies mastered by the students. With a pyramidal curricula underlying the educational and vocational training programs in the center, the staff's roles and responsibilities are highly interrelated and coordinated. Since the communication-based curriculum is used in a rural area within the Navajo Reservation where the problems of population sparsity, poor economy, and high attrition rate of teaching staff are experienced, other rural educators with the same problems may find the curriculum to be applicable in their own setting.

Joyce M. Peters
Torry Piazza Templeman
Teaching Research
345 N. Monmouth Ave.
Monmouth, OR 97361

Integrating Special Needs Children Into Regular Preschool Settings: Selecting Instructional Formats to Implement IEP Goals

Local education agencies in all communities are experiencing the impact of P.L. 99-457 as they are asked to provide free and appropriate educational opportunities to eligible 3 to 5 year old children with special educational needs. To comply with the clear legislative mandate for provision of these services in least restrictive environments, young children with disabilities are increasingly being placed in regular preschool programs including kindergarten, Headstart and a variety of daycare arrangements. For the rural community, this approach not only satisfies legislative intent of placement in the LRE, but is a cost effective practice being utilized in many sparsely populated areas. There are clear challenges faced by teachers serving children with disabilities in the regular preschool environment. On the one hand they are encouraged to rely less on the traditional special education practice of pull-out, isolated 1:1 instruction and to educate those children within the typical preschool instructional framework of small group, activity based instruction. At the same time, teachers are expected to systematically target specific skill acquisition goals articulated in the child's IEP.

The purpose of this paper is to describe a model, integrated preschool/daycare program established on a state college campus in which a matrix-type process has been developed for determining the most appropriate instructional formats for carrying out each IEP objective within an integrated, preschool setting. Salient features of the integrated, preschool/daycare model will be described with emphasis on the process for meshing IEP goals into the activity based curriculum of the regular preschool program. The rationale developed for selecting the integrated, small group, activity-based setting as opposed to the traditional, pull-out 1:1 setting will be discussed. The data collection systems devised for tracking student progress on IEP objectives will be detailed for the reader.

The Teaching Research Child Development Center was established on the campus of Western Oregon State College in Monmouth, Oregon, to serve children previously served in two separate, segregated programs: a regular,community based daycare facility which served 55 children of the college's students and an early intervention preschool serving eighteen children with moderate to severe handicaps. Children are assigned, primarily by chronological age, to one of the Center's four classrooms. Approximately 14 children are served in each classroom- six with varying kinds of handicapping conditions and 8 typically developing children.This assignment provides the total or "whole program" placement. All services for the child with special needs are provided within the context of the integrated program, requiring therapists to serve the child on a consultative basis rather than traditional "pull out therapy". The program is

designed to serve all children ages 3-5 who reside in the geographic catchment area. This more normalized placement practice eliminates the need to engage the child in time limited, artificial pull-out integration experience. The "whole program" placement for the special needs student avoids many of the problems associated with partial placement options. Issues of transporting students, overly long days for the preschooler, and disproportionate time investments in the child with special needs by the regular program, are all minimized when the total placement of the child is in the regular, community program. In addition, bonding to the group is enhanced by such a placement. This set of issues formed a compelling reason for Teaching Research to consider the "whole program" approach for the integration of children with disabilities. Additional considerations were dissatisfaction with previous experiences with more traditional "pull out" types of mainstreaming or reverse mainstreaming.

The wholly integrated preschool model facilitates the use of functional and age appropriate instruction for the young child with special needs. The design and implementation of instructional programs is driven by a comprehensive, on-going assessment process that examines the demands of current and future environments. The Teaching Research program subscribes to an assessment process that is summarized in Figure 1. This approach links assessment to intervention and provides for a system of data collection that serves as an on-going assessment of the child's progress toward instructional goals.

The assessment/program planning process begins with a survey of relevant environments the special needs child is expected to function within. Although this approach to determining relevant goals was initially popularized in adult programs and was most closely referenced to vocational and independent living skills, its application in the early childhood arena is proving to be most beneficial. The wholly integrated setting especially facilitates evaluation of the child's skills and deficits relative to the least restrictive, normalized environment since he/she is functioning full time in that environment. All of the skills necessary to function in this least restrictive environment will be very easily determined by the teacher responsible for assessment. The home and selected community environments are also areas that would be surveyed in the assessment of the child. Input from families is especially relevant when one is attempting to determine what environments the child and his family will be likely to experience.

Once the complete set of preferred skills is determined from the environmental inventories, the child is assessed against that body of skill descriptors. In many cases, the teacher is able to observe the special needs child as he participates in the integrated preschool and determine his skill proficiencies and deficiences. Some other skills will be more easily determined through interview with key people in the environment- parents, bus driver, playground supervisor, etc. Finally, there may be a few skills that require direct testing. If there will not be a reliable opportunity to observe that skill within the naturally occurring schedule, the teacher will need to manufacture the task in a somewhat artificial fashion. Many commercially available assessment instruments lend themselves to this type of assessment.

Once the child has been assessed against the body of necessary skills, it will usually be necessary to prioritize in order to determine which will be selected from the total possible set for inclusion on the current IEP. This becomes an easier task for the teacher when the child is placed in a wholly

ASSESSMENT AND CURRICULUM PLANNING

1. **Survey Relevant Environments**

2. **Assess Student**

   - **observation**
   - **interview**
   - **direct testing**

3. **Prioritize Deficit Skills**

4. **Set IEP Objectives**

5. **Determine Programming Formats**

6. **Develop Individualized Programs**

Figure 1

TS3.82

integrated setting. Considerations for prioritizing will include:which skill(s) will most increase the child's ability to function effectively in his present environment(s); which skills will be most functional in future environments; is the skill important to the family; is the skill measurable, etc.

The IEP process is maintained in much the same way in an integrated setting as it would be in a more traditional segregated program. The model developed at Teaching Research has assigned staff in such a way that each unit of two classrooms each is directed by a special education trained teacher who assumes primary responsibility for development and monitoring of the IEP.

Development of each IEP goal should be guided by principles of generalization and functionality. Goals directed toward this end become more generic versus splinter specific and are written toward naturally occurring learning opportunities within the daily classroom routine. After the IEP goals have been determined, the teacher then faces the challenge of determining instructional programming formats and drafting the specific details of individual programs. This step in the program planning process is seen as acutely critical when considering the peculiarities of the integrated preschool program versus traditional, self-contained special classrooms. Staff in the Teaching Research program devoted a great deal of attention to this issue when components of the program were being formulated. It should be noted that the program approaches this task from the bias that all instruction ideally should occur in the most naturally occurring setting within a preschool program- usually small groups. There must exist a compelling reason that instruction would occur in a 1:1 situation, isolated from the group. The instructional format options to be considered as each IEP goal is analyzed are summarized in Figure 2. It should also be assumed that instruction is best delivered through distribution of trials or opportunities across natural and functional activities occurring in the daily schedule. This decision point reflects a change from more traditional special education practice of repetitive or massed trial teaching which usually occurred in a 1:1, isolated setting. Staff developed a matrix type format for assisting them in analyzing each IEP goal and relating the programming format of each goal to activities or opportunities for teaching within the daily classroom routine. See Figure 3 for an example of the matrix. For each goal, the teacher will look for natural opportunities within the classroom schedule for incorporation of teaching to the goal. She is guided in her decision by previously stated biases and the question, "Can I logically and naturally target this particular skill within the morning circle(examp.)activity? Whenever possible, we avoid contrived or forced teaching situations and wait for more natural times in the routine. It will happen, on occasion, that a given goal cannot realistically be incorporated into existing routines and activities and will need to be targeted as a pull-out, 1:1 teaching format. This format can incorporate distributed trials, however, which will assist the child in generalizing the skill beyond the training setting. A last resort, when the child needs prolonged and repetitive practice, massed trial teaching would be chosen.

Meshing the instructional program of the special needs child into the regular preschool program requires the teacher to take several factors into account including:

1. facilitation of IEP goals within typical preschool activities
2. the maintenance of a balance between teacher directed and child initiated activities
3. the provision of a variety of instructional formats (small group,

SELECTING PROGRAMMING FORMATS

1.	2.	3.
GROUP	DISTRIBUTED TRIALS	NATURAL ENV.
1:1	MASSED TRIALS	LIMITED ENV.

TS3.83

Figure 2

NAME: Alec

ACTIVITY (Location)	Time Instructor	IEP GOAL TRIALS (Dispersed. Mass)	ACTIVITIES MATRIX: Reach to Request Choice	Manipulate Objects	Vocal Develop-ment
Arrival	8:30-9:00			X	
Choice	9:00-9:15			X	
Circle	9:15-9:30			X	
Manipulation Group	9:30-9:50		X	X	
Art/Music Group	9:50-10:10		X	X	
Exploration Group	10:10-10:30		X	X	
Snack	10:30-11:00		X	X	
P.E./Outside	11:00-11:30			X	
Story 1:1	11:30-12:00			X	X

Figure 3

large group and individual instruction
4. the efficient use of staff
5. the assurance of heterogeneous groupings.

The daily schedule is structured around typical preschool activities including dramatic play, exploratory play, art, outside play time, manipulative play, individual work, storytime and snack. Activities are varied between teacher and child initiated activities. Figure 4 is a display of the daily classroom schedule. During the time set aside for small group instruction (learning centers) children are organized into three groups, each with three to five children. The children are assigned to these groups to insure heterogeneous groupings and to allow staff to accommodate a specific child's needs on a daily basis. Children rotate among three learning centers, remaining with their originally assigned small group. The learning centers focus activities around three general areas: manipulatives, exploration and art.

The manipulatives group is primarily teacher directed and children select from a wide variety of materials (puzzles, constructions, assemblies, etc) Since each child is working with a unique material, the teacher can easily slip in instructional opportunities for the special needs child without disrupting the flow of the group's work. The exploration group is basically child initiated activity involving interaction with the materials available that day- sand, water, blocks, science or dramatic play. The art group includes all types of art and craft activities. Projects planned for this group include both teacher and child initiated activities ranging from finger painting to making potpourri hearts for Mother's Day gifts.

As mentioned in earlier paragraphs, some children may demonstrate the need fore more intense instruction on a specific skill or portion of a skill sequence. In this case, there is a 20 minute time set aside in the daily schedule for stories and individual instruction. This type instruction is often delivered by trained volunteers or college practicum students who are supervised by classroom staff.

A system for data based instruction was devised to enable the teacher to manage instruction and monitor progress of a special needs child within the typical, preschool program. The system is used to track child progress in group and individual settings and obtain discrete trial data for dispersed trial and massed trial instruction. The system matches instructional objectives with ongoing activities in the preschool schedule, thus prescribing the appropriate, natural setting for instruction. A data format, cross-referencing the objective and the schedule is used to collect ongoing data as illustrated in Figure 5. A task analyzed skill sequence is used allowing the teacher to prescribe small step, breakdowns of the whole task when necessary.

In summary, program staff have been encouraged by results of the program. Many parents , both of typical and special needs children, have given positive feedback to staff regarding the benefits of the wholly integrated program for their child. It is too soon to draw many conclusions from the data relative to child progress, but all observations would indicate that the special needs children are making noticeable gains in social , daily living and communication skills.

Daily Schedule

Time	Activity	Grouping and Instruction
8:00	Arrival	1:1 in natural environment
9:00	Choice	Large group/child initiated
9:15	Circle	Large group/teacher directed
9:30	Learning centers	Small group/teacher directed and child initiated
10:30	Bathrooming	1:1 in the natural environment
	Snack	Small group/teacher directed and a time for children to interact
11:00	Outside/gross motor	Large group/child directed
11:30	Story and 1:1	Small groups and 1:1 instruction in a limited environment
12:00	Departure	1:1 in the natural environment

Figure 4

Jan Porterfield, Ph.D.
Special Education Service Agency
2211-B Arca Drive
Anchorage, Alaska 99577

ALASKA CONSORTIUM FOR TRANSITION SERVICES (ACTS)

Rural Transition Planning for Secondary Students with Severe Disabilities: The Alaska Experience

Secondary Transition for Students with Disabilities

Secondary transition is the process of change which occurs as a student prepares for and moves from high school to adult life. Planning for this transition is important for all students, but it is particularly important for students with severe disabilities, who typically need more assistance than their peers. Until recently, however, the transition of students with severe disabilities has not been given much attention. It was assumed that these students and their families would deal with it on their own, or perhaps get help from a social worker or other adult service provider.

Typically, there were few adult options for individuals with severe disabilities, and those that did exist, segregated individuals with disabilities from non-disabled individuals (for example, residential facilities, sheltered workshops, or activity centers). If options were few, actual placements in these services were even fewer, and individuals were often placed on waiting lists for several months (or even years) before a placement could be found. Individuals with severe disabilities often stayed in their parental homes with nothing constructive or fulfilling to do, and with few opportunities for social interactions apart from those with immediate family. Many families found that they could not cope with the intensity of this situation. Often relationships broke down and the person experiencing a disability was placed in a residential facility as an emergency measure.

Thankfully, services have improved, and attitudes and circumstances have changed. More small group and individual supported living accommodations are now available. New creative employment services and Supported Employment programs are now operating (if only on a small scale) in most parts of the country. More and more, individuals with disabilities are taking their rightful place alongside other citizens. More individuals with disabilities now live in ordinary houses in ordinary neighborhoods (rather than in institutions), have paid jobs in ordinary work places (rather than spending their days in 'sheltered workshops' or 'activity centers'), spend leisure and recreation time with people who have similar interests (instead of being placed with people with whom they have nothing in common, apart from being 'disabled'). These positive changes are due to the efforts of parents, service providers, and individuals with disabilities themselves who have shown the potential of persons with disabilities when they are given appropriate opportunities and supported in their efforts to achieve.

A major contribution to helping students with disabilities to take their rightful place in society as adults, is effective Individual Transition Planning (ITP). Starting transition planning as early as possible, certainly by the time the student enters high school, can have a significant impact on his/her success in making the transition to adult life. Individualized Education Plan (IEP) goals can be linked with the ITP so that the goals are practical and relevant to the

student's future. While still in school, the student can begin to gain community living skills, establish leisure interests, and get work experience to determine the kind of employment or other day-time activity he/she prefers. If transition planning starts early enough and is done well, a student should be well established in his/her initial adult lifestyle (including living arrangements, employment or other adult day-time activity, recreational activities), and support mechanisms should be in place, before he/she actually leaves school.

Key elements of secondary transition planning

The following are common key elements of secondary transition planning models:

- The transition planning process should be individualized and systematic with specific outcomes in mind.
- It is essential to actively involve the individual as much as possible in all aspects of his/her transition planning.
- Parent/guardian/caregiver participation and early involvement in transition planning is important.
- Personnel from adult and community services (e.g., the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation) and organizations (e.g., Chamber of Commerce) should participate in transition planning.
- Transition planning should begin several years before the student leaves school.
- Transition planning should include living arrangements, social skills, leisure activities, as well as employment.
- Transition planning should use locally available alternatives.
- Adequate support services to maintain employment or subsistence activities and independent living as an adult must be arranged.

This paper describes the Alaska Consortium for Transition Services (ACTS), a three-year federally funded project being conducted by the Special Education Service Agency (SESA).

Purpose of the ACTS project

The purpose of the ACTS project is to develop and implement a process of secondary transition planning for students with severe disabilities living in rural and remote communities of Alaska.

The impetus for the project came from concern about the future of students with severe disabilities as they move into adult life. The project focuses on community-based service delivery and emphasizes collaboration between parents and/or caregivers, school districts, adult service agencies, and community organizations. The major difference between this project and other transition projects is its location - rural Alaska - and the unique features and characteristics of that location.

Background

Most of the Alaska is considered rural, and much of it remote, by standards applied in the lower forty-eight. Alaska has a huge land mass of 586,500 square miles (equal to the combined size of California, Texas, and Montana) and small, widely dispersed population of 525,000 (with nearly half of the population residing in the Anchorage area). Approximately 40% of all Alaskans live in communities of less than 1,000 people. Most of the people who live in rural Alaska are Native; and there are many different Native peoples, each with their own language and cultural values and norms.

In the recent past, students with disabilities in rural Alaska were removed from their homes and sent to one of the state's few urban centers or the lower forty-eight for evaluation, training, specialist care, and/or treatment. Most of these people were institutionalized, few returned to their home communities and some were never seen by their friends and relatives again.

It is now generally agreed that people with severe disabilities should receive services in their own communities, where they can maintain contact with their families and friends and participate in the ordinary community activities which enhance the quality of their lives. This is particularly important in Alaska where a move away from the person's home community may mean not only leaving familiar surroundings and close relationships, but the loss of the person's entire cultural heritage and experience.

Despite the desire to help people stay in their home communities, it has been difficult to provide services for students with disabilities in rural and remote communities. Often there is only one student in the village or small community who requires a particular special service, and it is not cost-effective to base a specialist in the community full time. Recently, Alaska and other rural states have made use of itinerant specialists who work with local teachers and other service providers to ensure that an individual receives appropriate services without leaving home.

There also are problems in the delivery of itinerant services because of geography, distance, climate, lack of a connecting road or rail system, and cultural and language differences among the people. Air transportation (consisting of jet services between major towns and charter service among most villages) is the only way for special service personnel to reach the villages. But flying has its problems. It is not at all uncommon to contend with last minute changes and delays due to weather. Thus factors such as severe weather conditions, almost non-existent road systems, and substantial distances between villages, offer a real challenge to the delivery of services to people with disabilities in remote areas of the state.

Even with these problems, few children (for example, those with serious medical conditions) must leave their home communities or school districts in order to receive the services they need. Currently, the educational needs of most children with handicaps are being met in their home communities. But what happens after high school?

As children with severe disabilities become adults the situation often changes. The person may want to live more independently, away from the parental home, or parents may want to see their relative settled in adult life or feel that they are no longer able to cope with the demands of living with a relative with a severe disability. Adult services are not mandated and the severe lack of day services means that most adults have no appropriate day-time activities. It is hard to imagine what the person will do when his/her days are not filled with attending school. In the recent past, many of these Alaskan 'school-leavers' were sent to Anchorage (or other larger cities). Apart from the problems this has caused for individuals and their families (discussed

above), this is no longer a real option because of long waiting lists for adult services in the larger cities.

Recently it has become a priority to find ways of helping students with disabilities who live in rural Alaska to make the transition to adult life while remaining in their own communities. Rural Alaska, however, has characteristics that make this transition especially challenging.

Many villages in rural Alaska have serious and wide-spread problems of drug and/or alcohol abuse, and in some, teenage suicide rates are high. It is difficult to confidently attribute the cause of these problems. It is clear, however, that the clash of the white and Native cultures is one contributing factor. This clash in values (for example, competition verses cooperation, independence verses inter-dependence) has been brought to rural Alaska in a number of ways. Those ways include the impact of television on the Native culture, the fact that the majority of teachers in rural Alaska are white while their students are almost entirely Native, etc.

In villages with these problems, it is very difficult for most high school students to make the transition to adult life. On the other hand, villages which are considered to be more 'traditional', do a good job of including and supporting all of their members; and this includes individuals with severe disabilities. In these villages, the transition is relatively easy, and individuals with disabilities move gradually into traditional adult roles alongside their peers.

Individual transition planning can be a tremendous help in enabling students with disabilities to remain in or near their home communities as adults. Through transition planning, the student, his/her family, and the local community can be prepared for the student's adult lifestyle; and the support systems and services required can be arranged. The content of transition models used in urban Alaska and the lower forty-eight, however, may not apply in rural and remote Alaska. In the majority of Alaskan villages there are few paid jobs and those that do exist are often held by village leaders. In many villages most people live by subsistence activities such as hunting, fishing, and gathering berries. Independence is not valued as much as inter-dependence. Community and cultural activities such as craft work and dance are highly valued. If transition planning is to have any relevance to 'bush' Alaska all of these activities and cultural norms must be taken into account and included as part of the student's transition plan. Effective transition planning should have a major impact on rural Alaska because the educational curriculum of students would include the skills they will need in adult life and, in rural Alaska, this will include subsistence, communal, and cultural activities.

Philosophy

The principle of normalization forms the underlying philosophy on which the activities of the ACTS project are based. Consistent with this philosophy is the belief that services should respond to individual needs within the cultural context. It is important in this project, therefore, to ensure that the transition goals which are set for individuals are consistent with the values of their culture and community.

When an Alaskan student with a severe handicap is preparing to leave school the adult activities that are important in and valued by the person's community (for example, paid employment, subsistence activities, crafts) need to be identified. The next task is to determine the options available, consider other options which might be created (for example, starting a small business), identify which of these the person would like to do, and how he/she can be prepared for (and/or supported in) the chosen option.

Components of the Alaska Transition Process

The ACTS project is developing a process for implementing secondary transition planning which is **culturally sensitive and adaptable** to the unique needs of each rural community and/or school district. The process includes:

1. cooperative agreements between school districts and adult service agencies (Interagency Agreements);

2. environmental assessments which will help to identify needs, adult options (including jobs, subsistence activities, residential accommodation, leisure activities), services, and resources available within the community;

3. identification of the strengths and needs of the individual and his/her family or primary caregivers;

4. Individual Transition Plans (ITP) for all secondary students with severe disabilities;

5. guidelines for meeting the student's post-school needs within his/her own community or community of choice;

6. materials and methods for training parents and personnel from school districts and adult service agencies in effective transition planning; and

7. materials and methods for increasing public awareness of the potential of individuals with severe disabilities to live in and contribute to their communities.

Each student's Individual Transition Plan (ITP) should emphasize community-based instruction and activities. The ITP should cover the areas of independent living; social, community, and leisure activities; and employment or subsistence activities. The student, his/her parents or guardians, teachers, and other current and future service providers (for example, teacher's assistant, education specialist, vocational rehabilitation counselor, residential service provider, employers) should be actively involved in the rural transition planning process. Where a needed service does not exist (for example, residential service) deficiencies are reported to the appropriate agency, and steps are taken at local, district, and state level to facilitate the development of the service.

Methods

The ACTS project is being conducted on three levels: 1) state, 2) district/region, and 3) local community.

At the state level, work is concentrated on facilitating the establishment of an Interagency Agreement between the Department of Education, Division of Vocational Rehabilitation and Division of Mental Health and Developmental Disabilities. The purpose of this agreement is to establish state guidelines for secondary transition planning and to develop cooperative funding mechanisms. These funding mechanisms would ensure that students with severe disabilities receive appropriate services as they prepare to leave school and the long-term support needed in adult life.

At district and local community levels the project focuses on the process involved in establishing a model of rural secondary transition. This process is made up of the steps involved in developing, establishing, and maintaining a system of transition planning. It is

expected that this process will be similar in most areas. The content and style of the transition planning system, however, are likely to vary from community to community depending on the needs and expectations of students with severe disabilities, their families and others in the community. For example, in each school district there will be a district-level interagency agreement between the school district and adult service providers. The steps necessary to establish the agreement will probably be similar in all districts. However, the content of the agreements is proving to be (and probably should be) very different, because of the different needs and resources of each community.

The collaborative process for rural secondary transition planning and implementation is being developed in two schools in one rural school district (the development site) during the 1988-89 school year.

During the 1989-90 school year, the revised process will be disseminated further in other school districts in Alaska through training, technical assistance, and support. Evaluative feedback will be used to further modify the procedures. Finally, the system will be disseminated to other rural states.

Examples

Following are examples of the kinds of activities that have formed part of transition plans for two students in different rural Alaska villages.

The first student is a 21 year old man in a village in the Lower Kuskokwim School District. This student experiences mental retardation. Prior to establishing his transition plan last year, this student spent his school day in a self-contained classroom. Outside of school he was known as a trouble maker, always hanging around and causing problems for people. Part of his transition plan was to find a job or other activity that he could do in the community to acquire job skills and help him gain self-confidence. His family and school staff worked together and were able to find him an unpaid job that would be of value to the community. The job they identified was vacuuming the village church. The vacuuming job was built into his school day, and his mother and the teaching aide taught him the skills needed to do a good job. He has learned to be on time, follow directions, and perform all of the tasks involved in the job efficiently. The people in the village now look at the young man positively, because they can see that he is capable of doing a job that is important to the village. The young man has developed feelings of positive self esteem, confidence, and self-worth by doing this activity. The skills he has learned can be built on and lead to learning other skills which also will contribute positively to village life. It would have been better if these activities had started when the student first entered high school so that he could have learned a variety of activities by the time he left school at 22. But even by starting at a later stage, the student has gained a great deal of skill and confidence, and his future looks much brighter than it did a year ago.

The second student is a fifteen year old girl who lives in a village in Yupiit School District. This student experiences multiple handicaps including vision problems and mental retardation. Prior to her transition plan this student spent her school day in a self-contained classroom and her time outside school was spent at home. Part of her transition plan was to begin learning work and leisure skills. She is learning work skills in the school kitchen and the leisure skill of weaving using a simple loom. The woven strips she makes can be used to trim for kuspuks (a dress worn by most Native women), guitar straps, belts, etc. She works at her weaving for two hours a day in school and earns money by selling the trim. In both her kitchen job and the weaving activity she is learning functional skills such as money management, vocabulary, ordering from catalogues, and socialization. These activities have helped her to feel better about herself and given her a purpose. The people in the village are very interested in her weaving because they now they can buy the trim they need in their own village, instead of ordering it

from catalogues, as they did previously. The other students in the school also admire this student, and are more accepting of her. She has started attending some classes with non-disabled students and now talks to students in these classes. Everyone in the village recognizes that she is much more capable than they previously thought. If she continues to do her kitchen job and weaving activity and learns some other work and leisure skills, by the time she leaves school she will be skilled at a variety of activities. She will probably always live at home or with a family member, but she will be a contributing member of her community.

Progress to date

Timeline

The project was funded from October 1987 to September 1990. Unfortunately, work did not begin until February 1988 because of difficulties in recruiting a project coordinator. The project Consortium has now been formed, the school district which serves as the development site selected, and piloting of the Individual Transition Planning (ITP) process is underway.

The Consortium

The Consortium is now comprised of 66 people from a wide range of disciplines representing most regions of the state. Active Consortium members include: representatives from twenty-two (22) of Alaska's fifty-five (55) School Districts, the Special Education Service Agency, the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, the Division of Mental Health and Developmental Disabilities, the Department of Education, the Education Department at the University of Alaska Anchorage, the Governor's Council for the Handicapped and Gifted, the Association of the Village Council Presidents (Native organization), the Kodiak Native Association (Native organization), the Alaska Parent Coalition (a statewide parent group), Access Alaska (a non-profit organization which provides independent living services to people with physical disabilities), Challenge Alaska (a non-profit organization which provides recreational opportunities to people with physical disabilities), the Alaska Chamber of Commerce, and a parent from a remote village.

Members of the Consortium work together to encourage the development of the secondary transition process throughout Alaska. Consortium members participate by reviewing and evaluating the developments that are being implemented in the Lower Kuskokwim School District and by introducing developments in their own school districts, agencies, or communities. A very important aspect of Consortium members' role is networking: providing information, feedback, and support to each other.

The Consortium meets through both teleconference (a common but not entirely satisfactory mode in Alaska) and face-to-face meetings to discuss the focus of the project and its progress. At these meetings members, share information, help each other with problems, and discuss future developments.

The goals of the face-to-face meeting in September 1988 were:

- to give participants a common knowledge base and awareness of transition activities and post secondary options around the state
- to determine the individuals and activities which should be part of an effective transition planning process

- to develop action plans that could be used by each participant to help with the development of transition planning

- to establish mechanisms for communication, support, feedback, and problem solving among Consortium members and with others involved in the transition activities in Alaska.

Each participant took from the meeting an action plan and personal goals for developing transition planning. Following the meeting, ACTS staff contacted members who were not able to attend to encourage them to set goals. They regularly contact all Consortium members to follow-up on the action plans and goals by offering support and technical assistance.

The Development Site

The Lower Kuskokwim School District (LKSD) was selected by a sub-group of Consortium members. The decision was based on the following criteria for model site selection:

- Enthusiastic agreement to participate from:
  - Representatives of the School District
  - Director of Special Education
  - Principals of the schools to be involved in the project
  - Teachers working with students with severe handicaps in these schools
  - Students
  - Parents and/or other adult caregivers of students
  - Adult service providers (for example, Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, residential, supported employment)
  - Representatives of the Native Corporation

- A total of at least five students with severe handicaps between 16-22 years old attending the schools involved in the project.

- At least one student with a severe handicap making the transition from secondary school in 1989 and one or more in 1990.

- Students integrated into ordinary schools.

- Population of the district representative of rural Alaska.

- Reasonable access between participating schools

- Reasonable access from Anchorage (the base for project staff).

LKSD met all of the criteria and had additional characteristics (such as, a Vocational Rehabilitation counselor based in the regional center, the establishment of a new Community Services program and Supported Employment project) which enhanced the development of the transition process. Two schools, Bethel Regional High School (located in the regional center, population 7,000) and Kwethluk School (in a small village about 20 miles from Bethel, population 500) were selected by school district personnel as the development schools. ACTS project staff provide assistance and support as the process is developed, evaluated, and implemented in these schools.

ACTS staff visit Bethel and Kwethluk about once a month during the school year to assist in transition planning activities. They have been involved in a number activities including:

- meeting with members of the Bethel Transition Team (BTT) to draft, revise and finalize the cooperative interagency agreement which specifies the joint working arrangements which will help students make the transition from high school.

- assisting teachers with the selection and adaptation of recording forms and procedures for ITP meetings. (Examples of the forms will be provided at the presentation.)

- assisting teachers in piloting ITP meetings with students, parents, and adult service providers.

- participating in community meetings to inform members of the community about transition activities and find out about other resources that might help in the transition of students.

- presenting information on the ACTS project and the involvement with the school district to the Advisory School Board.

- planning of a video presentation in conjunction with the school district which will help to inform people in the rural communities of the need for secondary transition planning.

- visiting community adult facilities and resources to explore the possibilities for students who will be leaving high school in the next few years.

ITP Example

The first ITP meeting was held in Bethel for a 20 year old young woman who experiences mental retardation. As a regional center of 7,000 people Bethel has many more job opportunities and a wider range of services than smaller villages.

Attending the ITP meeting were the student's mother, the Special Education teacher, the DVR Counselor; the Job Coach from Bethel Community Services, and ACTS staff. The student did not attend the meeting although she was scheduled to do so. The student's mother and Special Education teacher decided not to involve the student in this first meeting. They felt uncertain about the process and did not want to cause the student any undue concern. Since the meeting the teacher and student's mother have discussed the meeting content with her.

At the meeting the goals for the student's ITP were prioritized, and activities for achieving the goals before she graduates from high school in May, 1990 were discussed. The main goals to be worked on are Job and Job Training, and Recreation and Leisure. This student has a supportive family who want to provide for her living arrangements, income, transportation, and medical care in the future. Some ideas were discussed to help specify ways in which the family might deal with each of these areas.

The ideas generated by the people attending the meeting were written on an ITP form. (This form was selected and modified by the teacher from several that had been collected from other transition projects in the lower forty-eight.) Another meeting was scheduled to determine the best way to meet the goals and to formalize the plan.

The ideas suggested for the prioritized goals were:

Job and Job Training - Job skills should continue to be worked on in school. The Job Coach suggested that, contingent on the approval of the student and her mother, a 20 hour/week supported employment placement be identified and initiated in the spring of 1989. Employment

would continue through the next school year so that her job skills would be in place when she left school.

The DVR Counselor suggested that the student be introduced to the program at Adult Basic Education so that her educational needs would continue to be met when she leaves high school.

Recreation and Leisure - It was agreed that the student should be introduced to the Skill Center (a day activity center for people with developmental disabilities and chronic mental illness, to help her develop social contacts and hobby interests. It was also suggested that she increase her participation in ordinary community activities, for example church, post office, shopping, and community events.

It was agreed that during the 1988-89 school year the student would gradually spend more and more time, up to four hours a day, in the community. This time would be divided among jobs arranged by the teacher (e.g., house cleaning with other students in her class), the Skill Center where she would develop leisure interests and social skills, Adult Basic Education where skills such a budgeting could be learned in an adult environment, and the Supported Employment placement. During the 1989-90 school year (her last year in school) the time she spends out of school would be increased until she is spending all of her time in the adult activities she will be involved in following graduation.

Dissemination Activities

Descriptions of the transition process and outcomes are being sent to other districts so that they can benefit from the experience of the development site. This will also enable other districts to assess the adaptability of the process to their own district. Only limited assistance can be provided to other districts wishing to implement the process due to financial and time constraints. However, feedback is being obtained from all districts and modifications will be made based on their collective experience.

In addition to the dissemination that can be done directly, project staff are working with the Education Specialists employed by the Special Education Service Agency (SESA), the agency which holds the project grant. These Education Specialists travel to most school districts in rural Alaska providing assistance to teachers who have students with low incidence disabilities in their classrooms. Many of the Education Specialists are working with secondary students and have been disseminating the ACTS transition process to these teachers.

Project staff are currently planning the first major dissemination activity to be held in Spring 1989. This will be a training event for teachers, DVR counselors, other adult service providers and parents. Teachers from the development site and others who have been piloting the process will share their experience with those who would like to introduce the transition planning process in their district. Positive examples, problems, and concerns will be gathered later from all those attending the workshop and incorporated into the final transition planning process manuals.

Conclusion

The purpose of the Alaska Consortium for Transition Services (ACTS) project is to develop ways of helping students with severe disabilities who live in rural Alaska to make successful transitions from high school to adult life. During the 1988-89 school year, work is concentrated on developing the transition planning process in one rural school district. The process will be revised and disseminated in other rural school districts in Alaska during the 1989-90 school year.

Individual transition planning usually begins several years before the student leaves school. Individual Transition Plans (ITPs) cover areas such as where the person might live; the job, subsistence activity or other valued adult activity he/she might do; and how he/she might spend leisure time. By linking the student's IEP to his/her transition plan, educational goals can be set which are practical, realistic, and relevant to the student's future. Becoming involved at an early stage helps adult service providers (such the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation and the Division of Mental Health and Developmental Disabilities) to better understand the abilities, needs, and preferences of the student and the concerns of his/her family. This involvement enables them to actively contribute to the planning process and helps to ensure that the services required by the student in adult life can be provided in his/her own community.

The success of the ACTS project relies on collaboration and joint planning at state, district, and local school levels. The Consortium encourages interagency agreements to facilitate the transition planning process at all three levels. The main focus of the project, however, is on developing a process which will help each student with a severe disability who lives in rural Alaska to make a successful transition into adult life.

The ACTS project encourages, facilitates, and supports the introduction of individual transition planning in rural Alaska. Much of the structure of the approach being used in Alaska is based on transition models which are used in other parts of the country. The difference is in the content of the transition plans and their application to rural Alaska. Many rural communities in Alaska have very few paid jobs and the majority of the people rely on subsistence activities, such as hunting, fishing, and gathering berries. The challenge for schools, therefore, is to adequately prepare students for their adult lives by including in the curriculum the skills they will need for these subsistence activities. Adult services too must adapt. Services such as residential support, job training schemes, and supported employment must be used creatively and flexibly, and be culturally sensitive, if they are to be relevant to Alaska's rural communities.

Third Annual Conference of National Rural and Small
Schools Consortium (NRSSC)
Ft. Lauderdale, Florida
March 8-12, 1989

A MODEL FOR SCIENCE EDUCATION REFORM IN RURAL SCHOOLS: AN INSERVICE PROGRAM FOR LOCAL TEAM LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

J. Preston Prather, Director
Center of Excellence for the Enrichment of
Science and Mathematics Education

Robert L. Hartshorn, Associate Director
Center of Excellence

The University of Tennessee at Martin
Martin, TN 38238
(901)587-7166

(Adapted and used with permission from "Evaluation of A Model for Reform of Elementary Science Instruction in Rural and Small School Systems," published in the Journal of Rural and Small Schools, 3(3), Spring 1989.)

Acknowledgements

The Elementary Science Education Institute, in which the leadership development project discussed in this research report was developed, was supported in part by grants from the National Science Foundation (TEI-8561464) and the Tennessee Higher Education Commission (THEC). Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this publication are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Science Foundation or the Tennessee Higher Education Commission.

A MODEL FOR SCIENCE EDUCATION REFORM IN RURAL SCHOOLS: AN INSERVICE PROGRAM FOR LOCAL TEAM LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

The need for improvement of science education is a major national issue (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). There is intense pressure for reform, and existing curricula and instruction have been declared largely inadequate (Hurd, 1986). The problem was recognized as especially severe in elementary education more than a decade ago (National Science Foundation, 1978). Stake and Easley (1978) concluded that few students were likely to experience even one year of substantial science instruction from kindergarten through the sixth grade. Five years later, Mechling and Oliver (1983) noted that most of the nation's schools still lacked an adequate elementary science program. Many elementary teachers feel unqualified to teach science and devote little or no time to it (National Science Teachers Association, 1983). Without substantial reforms, most of the nation's youth will be deprived of systematic science instruction during the formative elementary years when they may benefit most from the learning processes and thinking skills promoted by science study.

A Basis for Reform

Children are naturally inquisitive, and most students enter their first formal science study with many ideas that were developed in an effort to make sense of day-to-day observations of natural phenomena in early childhood (Driver, 1983). Scientifically sound ideas of this nature constitute a basis for further science education, but research in cognitive psychology by Driver (1983), McCloskey (1983), and others indicated that many of the more common preconceptions are actually misperceptions based on perceptual illusions, intuition, naive inferences, incorrect logic, or simple misinformation. For example, when a child gives a toy truck a push and it continues to roll across the floor, the child may intuitively conclude that the toy continues to roll because a causal force was somehow imparted to the toy by the pusher. This is an intelligent, logically conceived conclusion that may be reinforced by repeated observations over the years, but it is incompatible with the principles of modern Newtonian mechanics.

When such a notion has supplied a satisfactory explanation of personal experiences over a long period of time, Clement (1982) observed, it may not be easily displaced by subsequent science instruction. Rather, when a more adequate concept is encountered in the classroom, it may be disregarded or "more likely . . . misperceived or distorted by students so as to fit their existing preconceptions" (p. 70). Some of the more common misperceptions about the relation of force and motion become so deeply entrenched among students, he noted, that they persist through college training, even among the majority of science and engineering students. This represents a major threat to science education at a time when the average citizen is increasingly dependent upon a basic understanding of science for living, learning, working, and decision-making. An effective program of science instruction beginning in kindergarten, before the common misperceptions become deeply entrenched, would help to counter that threat by providing a sound basis for later science study.

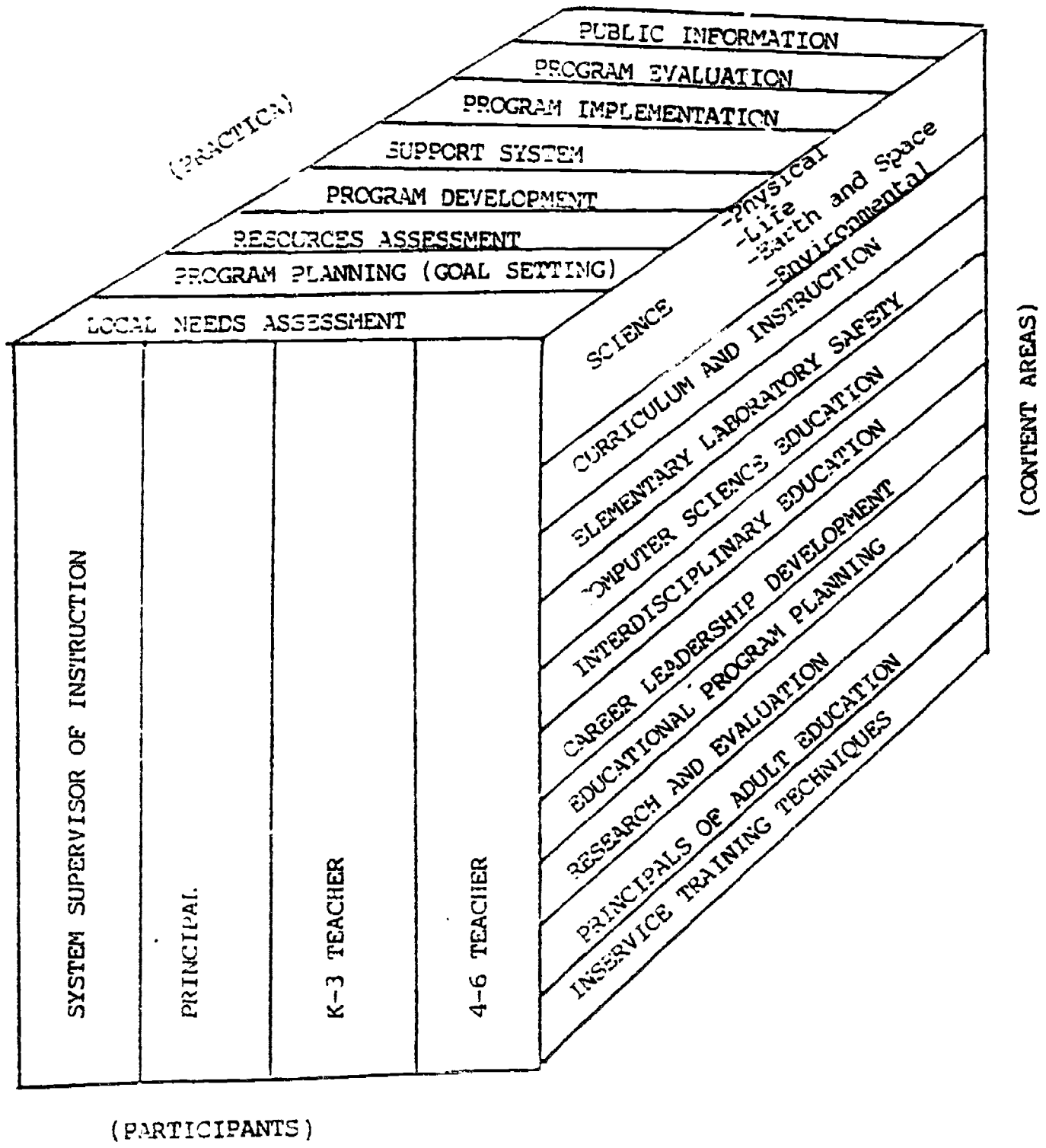
A Response to The Challenge

In a sweeping effort to improve science instruction in Tennessee, the State Board of Education developed a new science curriculum framework that mandated a "hands-on science" instructional approach for all grades from kindergarten through high school. The Board further required that sufficient time must be given to science instruction to teach the required objectives for each grade. This generated concern among school officials for several reasons. For example, no elementary science text was found that adequately addressed the objectives of Tennessee's new science curriculum (Field, 1988). In addition, few elementary teachers were comfortable with "hands-on-science" instruction, which was very different from the way they themselves had been taught science in high school and college (Prather, Hartshorn, and McCreight, 1988).

To help overcome those problems, the Center of Excellence for the Enrichment of Science and Mathematics Education (CEESME) at the University of Tennessee at Martin, developed a seven volume Science Activities Manual K-6 that was correlated to the instructional objectives of the state science curriculum guide. The manual, which was written with the cooperation of twenty-four elementary science teachers, was specifically designed for use in "hands-on-science" teaching. Still, many teachers attempted to employ it in terms of the traditional, student-passive instruction that characterized most of the science instruction they themselves had received. It soon became obvious that additional training in the use of concrete manipulatives in science instruction would be required for most inservice teachers to make the transition to that mode of teaching.

To help teachers make that transition, the CEESME developed a research-based teacher education program that included a unique combination of content instruction, field activities, and team leadership training that addressed the mandate of "hands-on-science" instruction. The resultant program model, called the Elementary Science Education Institute (ESEI), is presented in Figure 1, which shows the four-member team structure that was central to its success.

Figure 1 A Model for Reform for Elementary Science Instruction in Rural and Small School Systems through Inservice Teacher Preparation



Justification of the Concept

Over the past three decades, billions of dollars have been spent for improving pre-college science instruction, generally with very disappointing results (Yager, 1981). The problem was attributed to a variety of things, including ineffective teacher training. Some educators began to suspect, however, that something other than teacher preparation was involved.

Several studies indicated that the problem was a lack of local support for educational reform because of a basic lack of understanding of science and the resources needed for effective science instruction. For example, the support of the building principal was found to be critical to the success of any school program; but "many principals feel uncomfortable, even inadequate, with science. . . While many principals want to improve science in their schools' curriculum, they wonder how and where to begin" (Mechling and Oliver, 1982, p. 4). In another study, Rutherford (1985) concluded that "When the principals had visions for the future of their schools, the teachers described those schools as good places for students and for teachers" (p. 32). The CEESME staff speculated that including the building principal with elementary classroom teachers in a science training program would culminate in a shared vision for enriching science in their schools.

Further research revealed that whereas large school systems generally have science specialists to provide leadership in facilitating educational reform, most rural and small school systems do not. It therefore appeared equally important that the system supervisor of instruction also participate in the program to insure an understanding of the nature and needs of science education within that dimension of the administrative structure.

Consideration of these factors resulted in a project for local team leadership development. The project was based on the presupposition that enrichment of science education in rural and small school systems would require that both the instructional and the administrative skills needed for reform be developed simultaneously. This could be accomplished within the existing educational structure through joint training of local teams of elementary teachers, principals, and supervisors of instruction.

Besides some of the obvious challenges of jointly training teachers and administrators in a new educational approach, there was the immediate concern of a shortage of elementary science teachers. A synthesis of research and evaluation in science and mathematics education by the U. S. General Accounting Office (GAO) indicated that retraining teachers from other subjects was a viable approach to overcoming the immediate teacher shortage in the fields of science and mathematics. The GAO (1984) report also indicated that "retraining programs sponsored by state education agencies (SEA's) and local education agencies (LEA's) tend to have higher retention rates than university programs" (p. iii). This was attributable in part to the fact that most SEA and LEA programs "are offered at little or no cost to participants" (p. 52). From this, the CEESME concluded that the program should concentrate on enrichment training of existing elementary

teachers who are interested in teaching science. It was also determined that the program should be offered tuition-free.

Review of the research on science education and an assessment of the needs of teachers in the UTM service area indicated that the project should consist of two parts: 1) an Elementary Science Education Institute (ESEI), providing intensive academic preparation for the participating teams; and 2) a Field Phase, to be carried out by the teams in their school systems and surrounding school districts during the following year. A support system was planned to nurture the teams' efforts throughout the year.

Approximately 240 hours of instruction was required. To accomplish this in a manner compatible with the need for prompt training of in-service elementary science teachers would require a relatively short, intensive program schedule. The GAO (1984) report, however, indicated that "in the absence of substantial scholarship and subsistence payments, short and intensive programs seem to attract few students" (p. 56). To help attract participants, a per diem of $40 was proposed, and an honorarium of $2000 and fifteen (15) quarter-hours of tuition-free graduate academic credit were also provided to those who successfully completed the academic training.

Application of the Model

The Elementary Science Education Institute was funded by the National Science Foundation (NSF) and the Tennessee Higher Education Commission (THEC), and nine four-member teams were recruited from geographically dispersed rural school systems. As indicated in Figure 1, each team consisted of a primary (grades K-3) and an intermediate (grades 4-6) teacher, their principal, and their system's supervisor of instruction or other official responsible for supervising elementary science instruction. Grant funds provided for employment of three exemplary elementary science teachers to serve as field supervisors and assist the CEESME staff in coordinating a support system for local team activities. The field supervisors received the same academic training as the team members, making a total of 39 participants. The grant provided for three project cycles for a total of 27 teams, with one cycle per year scheduled for 1987, 1988, and 1989.

The first Institute began on February 7, 1987; and the academic program extended through June. Minority participation was 18%. At the UTM campus, 240 hours of instruction were provided in the content areas indicated on Figure 1. Each team also was required to plan a one-year practicum, or field project, for the improvement of elementary science instruction based on independent, on-site research. Science academicians and educators provided instruction on science content, curriculum, and instructional methods. To introduce the "hands-on-science" teaching strategy, authors of the Science Activities Manual K-6 provided twenty-five model lessons from the manual.

A portable microteaching unit was provided for each team's use in critiquing its classroom efforts to improve instructional techniques. Participants were required to prepare and videotape lessons from the Science Activities Manual K-6. They then were

required to critique their own videotaped lessons, using criteria based on the evaluation standards of the Tennessee Career Ladder Program. The tapes were then submitted for jury review by a team of highly qualified teacher evaluators. This enabled teachers to compare their self-evaluations with those made by the jury. The teams also found the microteaching units helpful for preparing professional presentations, in-service teaching aids, and programs for local civic groups.

In keeping with the concept of team development, no distinction was made between administrators and teachers in the training process. To promote team recognition, a public information program was conducted in each team's home area to acquaint the public with their plans for improvement of elementary science education. Because of the publicity surrounding their work, the nine teams were invited to host a special conference of the Science Association of Tennessee (SAT) at UTM and present their ideas to a statewide audience. The enthusiastic response of the audience helped the teams realize their capacity for creative program development and recognize their potential for educational leadership.

By the beginning of the 1987-88 school year, each team had implemented its field project. In most cases, those projects involved conducting extensive in-service training programs in their schools. In anticipation of this, funds were provided to employ substitute teachers for a team's two teachers when they were required to be absent from the classroom on team-related activities.

Evaluation of the Model

With the conclusion of the first 18-month cycle of the project, which included the academic preparation and subsequent field activities of the nine 1987 teams, the CEESME had a sufficient data base to begin a program of statistical analyses for research and evaluation. The 1987 ESEI participants underwent evaluation in five areas: 1) science content knowledge; 2) attitudes toward science and science teaching; 3) computer literacy; 4) knowledge and utilization of the Tennessee Instructional Model, with which they are expected to work; and 5) the performance of their students.

The group showed an overall gain of approximately 10% in science content mastery, with greatest gains in earth and space science (9.8%) and physical science (9.3%). Gains of approximately 7.8% in environmental science and 4.0% in life science were also observed. This may be due to the fact that the prior science preparation of most participants was concentrated in life science, with more limited backgrounds in the physical and earth-space sciences. Data were gathered from pre-tests and post-tests using an 80-item survey, with a number of questions from each of the major science areas proportional to the number of objectives from each field in the Tennessee Science Curriculum Guide K-6. Estimates of instrument reliability, which were obtained by computing coefficient ALPHA, ranged from 0.77 to 0.82.

Pre-tests and post-tests of participants' attitudes towards science and science teaching were also surveyed using a 70-item attitude survey instrument. Favorable changes were shown in both areas, but additional research will be required to determine whether the responses of teachers and administrators differed significantly.

Attitudes toward the use of computers in the classroom were also examined. A sharp rise in the participants' confidence in their ability to use the computer was noted. With some surprise, it also was learned that the computer instruction provided by the CEESME constituted the first formal training in computers for a majority of the ESEI members. Knowledge and utilization of the Tennessee Instructional Model (TIM) were studied through examination of lessons that were presented and videotaped in the participants' classrooms. The lessons were evaluated by a jury of highly trained teacher evaluators, which allowed the teachers to see themselves as a state teacher-evaluator would see them.

Data were also collected from 44 Tennessee classrooms to compare the performance of students taught by the ESEI teachers with that of students in classes taught by other teachers in the same school (HOME) and in schools in non-participating districts (CONTROL). Comparisons were made on the basis of pre-tests and post-tests, using separate instruments for K-3 and 4-6 students. The K-3 study (n=411) involved first and second grades. The 4-6 study (n=491) involved fourth, fifth and sixth graders. After a year of instruction, the first and second grade ESEI classes showed greater gains in content knowledge than either the HOME or CONTROL group. In all comparisons for grades 4-6, except ESEI with CONTROL in the fourth grade, the ESEI group performed better than the respective HOME or CONTROL group, with significant improvements ($p < .01$) in many cases.

The development and progress of the teams' field practica provided a further basis for assessment of the effectiveness of the ESEI model. At the beginning of the Institute, each team was required to survey its school system's elementary science education needs and resources and to research options for improvement of elementary science teaching during the following school year. The teams developed programs for systematic dissemination of the content and skills they gained in the ESEI through in-service programs for their peers. The teams prepared public information programs to generate local support for reform of elementary science education beginning at the "grass-roots" level. The public relations value of preparing and submitting news items to local newspapers was quickly recognized by the group, and several teams became proficient in obtaining coverage (one team boasted 17 news items). The support system provided by the three field supervisors was a key factor to the teams' success in the early implementation of their practica.

At the beginning of the Institute, only about 26% of the participants indicated that they believed they could teach elementary science in the "hands-on" mode called for in the State Science Curriculum. At the end of the academic preparation in June, 1987, all agreed or strongly agreed that they could do an effective job of "hands-on-science" teaching.

By the end of the 1987-88 school year, the 36 team members and 3 field supervisors had presented more than 117 major, in-service programs including presentations before area and state groups. Members of five teams have made out-of-state presentations to groups of teachers, and one team was invited to another state to explain its program for reform to that state's Board of Education.

Through their presentations at local, area, and state professional meetings, the ESEI teachers, principals, and supervisors have assumed a leadership function that has cast them as exemplars in their field. An estimated 60% have added at least one additional professional affiliation over the past year. The combined effect of the media attention and successful attainment of her team's goals prompted one team teacher to make this enthusiastic statement to the new teams at the opening of the 1988 Institute: "Just a year ago, I was very discouraged, but I feel very, very good about being a science teacher now; and that makes my whole life and all the years of school and all the work in my classroom seem more than worthwhile. What we do is important, and folks realize that!"

Conclusion

Doyle and Hartle (1985) contended that, for an effective educational program, classroom teachers must be active participants rather than passive followers in the quest for reform. The ESEI model was designed to provide the opportunity for central involvement. Each participating school system gained a unique team of educators cognizant of both the instructional and administrative dimensions of educational program development. This clearer understanding of both perspectives enabled the teachers and administrators to overcome many hurdles by pulling together for better science education, and seven of the nine 1987 teams evaluated themselves as having accomplished very substantial reforms within the 1987-88 school year.

Public awareness and support for elementary science education may be among the most important benefits produced by the ESEI model of local team leadership development. Several teams, for example, reported voluntary involvement of parents in such activities as the collection and packaging of materials for science lessons.

Participating school systems therefore found within their ranks the grass-roots leadership and in-service training capabilities necessary to follow the new direction in elementary science education in Tennessee. The teams in the 1988 Institute appear to be achieving equally successful results, providing additional evidence that rural school systems can bring about reform within their own ranks through local leadership development.

References

Clement, J. (1982). Students' preconceptions in introductory mechanics. American Journal of Physics, 50(1), 66-71.

Doyle, P. D. & Hartle, T. W. (1985). Leadership in education: governors, legislators, and teachers. Kappan, 67(1), 21-27.
Driver, R. (1983). The pupil as scientist? Milton Keynes, England: The Open University Press.
Field, M. H. (1988). A chronicle of changes for elementary science in Tennessee. Education. 108(4), 419-426.
Gabel, D., Samuel, K., Helgeson, S., McGuire, S., Novak, J., and Butzow, J. (1987). Science education research interests of elementary teachers. Journal of Research in Science Teaching. 24(7), 659-677.
General Accounting Office. (1984). New directions for federal programs to aid mathematics and science teaching. Washington, D.C.: United States General Accounting Office.
Hurd, P. (1986). Perspectives for the reform of science education. Phi Delta Kappan, 85(6), 353-358.
McCloskey, M. (1983). Intuitive physics. Scientific American, 248(4), 122-130.
Mechling, K., & Oliver, D. (1982). Handbook II: The principal's role in elementary school science. Washington, D.C.: National Science Teachers Association.
Mechling, K., & Oliver, D. (1983). Handbook I: Science teachers' basic skills. Washington, D.C.: National Science Teachers Association.
National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). A nation at risk. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Department of Education.
National Science Foundation. (1978). The status of pre-college science, mathematics, and social studies educational practices in U.S. schools: An overview and summary of three studies. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.
National Science Teachers Association. (1983). Recommended standards for the preparation and certification of teachers of science at the elementary and middle/junior high school levels. (An NSTA position statement). Science and Children. 21(1), 65-70.
Prather, P., Hartshorn, R., & McCreight, D. (1988). A team leadership development program: The Elementary Science Education Institute(ESEI). Education. 108(4), 454-461.
Rutherford, W. L. (1985). School principals as effective leaders. Kappan, 67(1), 31-34.
Stake, R., & Easley, J. (1978). Case studies in science education, Volumes I and II. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
Weiss, I. (1978). Report of the 1977 national survey of science, mathematics, and social studies education. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
Yager, R. (1981). An analysis of the secondary science curriculum for action in the 1980's (1982 AETS yearbook). Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University. (ERIC document reproduction number SE-03-0-586).

Cooperative Learning and Cooperative Staff Development to Promote Social Integration

JoAnne W. Putnam, Ph.D.

Kathryn F. Markovchick

Center for Cooperative Learning
University of Maine at Farmington

March, 1989

This project was supported by a grant from the Division of Special Education, Department of Educational and Cultural Services, Augusta, Maine.

A Cooperative Learning Staff Development Project To Enhance Social Integration

A cooperative learning staff development and research project was conducted in a middle school and junior high school in Gardiner, Maine to promote the social integration of students with special needs. Staff development activities were aimed at imparting skills in cooperative learning to improve the quality of instruction for students with disabilities as well as nondisabled students.

This paper presents an overview of cooperative learning, a cooperative learning staff development model, an abbreviated discussion of project evaluation outcomes, and a description of Maine's rural support network for cooperative learning (NNSNCL).

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative group learning involves organizing students in small heterogeneous groups to work on academic assignments. A key feature of cooperative learning is positive interdependence, where students recognize that they must work together to successfully accomplish the assigned task. Students are made to feel accountable for contributing to the group's efforts as well as achieving their own individual learning goals. Teachers provide students with specific instruction on how to collaborate in a group (e.g., by providing instruction in social skills such as active listening or encouraging others to express their ideas). While students work in cooperative groups, teachers monitor student behavior, provide assistance, and at the end of the activity they discuss group functioning with the students and provide them with feedback on their performance.

Extensive research on cooperative learning indicates that in addition to contributing significantly to achievement, students engaged in cooperative learning activities will tend to be friendlier, have more of a group orientation and will learn more from one another. Over fifty studies have been conducted on mainstreaming and cooperative learning. Reviews by Johnson, Johnson and Maruyama (1983) and Slavin (1980) demonstrate positive effects of cooperative learning on handicapped and nonhandicapped students with respect to academic achievement, interpersonal relations,

self-esteem, and attitudes toward school.

Cooperative learning activities provide an ideal context for instruction of disabled students in the mainstream, because they afford opportunities for meaningful social interaction with nondisabled peers. These activities are compatible with other effective instruction practices, such as individualization of instruction, behavioral procedures, direct instruction and mastery learning.

The project involved about 23 special education students who were classified as mildly or moderately disabled. Participating students were labeled learning disabled, mentally disabled, hearing impaired, speech impaired, visually impaired and behaviorally disordered. IQ scores ranged from 68 to 112. Students varied considerably in terms of their educational needs, ranging from "monitored students" who were mainstreamed full-time in academic subjects to those participating only in one non-academic regular class activity. Regular education students (N=122) also were involved in the cooperative learning interventions and another group of students who were not involved in cooperative activities served as a contrast group (N=148) for evaluation purposes.

The Staff Development Approach

A key assumption of the staff development project was that successful social integration of students with disabilities requires active communication and cooperation among regular and special education staff members. Regular class teachers must possess a repertoire of instructional strategies and techniques for use with students who do not seem to benefit from standard approaches. Special educators can provide support to regular class teachers by adapting and modifying curriculum, making suggestions regarding behavioral management, and by recommending instructional strategies that are suited to the student's particular learning style and needs. Educational assistants can provide invaluable support in the regular class, as well.

Surveys on Mainstreaming Needs. Prior to the onset of project activities, an informal survey given to teachers in the middle school and junior high school indicated a strong desire for specific teaching methods appropriate for handicapped students in regular class settings. During the

first month of the project a more formal survey of teacher's opinions relative to mainstreaming special needs children (Larrivee, 1985) indicated that, in general, teachers had an "average" degree of success in dealing with special needs students in the regular classroom and that the availability of support services was "average to high." Most teachers agreed that the integration of special-needs students can be beneficial for regular students and that mainstreaming will promote the social independence of special-needs students. Thirty-eight percent of the teachers concurred that mainstreaming will promote the academic growth of students with special needs (although about 44% of the teachers were undecided). On the negative side, respondents disagreed with the statement that regular classroom teachers have sufficient training to teach children with special needs.

Previously, mainstreamed students in the two schools had received mostly remedial/tutorial instruction with a heavy emphasis on individualized instruction. The fifteen teachers who volunteered to participate in the project were very receptive to learning about different instructional approaches, especially about techniques for improving group instruction.

Teacher Decision Making. It is our conviction that adult learners know where, when, and how they like to learn new information. Therefore, every effort was made to involve teachers in project related decisions (e.g., the format, content, and scheduling of training sessions). The training model proposed by teachers was very similar to the ideal format the authors would have chosen. And, importantly, it had the added advantage of being theirs. One teacher's comment represented the sense of empowerment the group gained by making the decisions: "I can't believe you're asking us this...no one ever asks us what we want to do!" Additionally, a "Please Never Do" list was created by the teachers. For example, teachers asked us not to schedule training activities on Saturdays.

Staff Development Activities. To impart knowledge and skills in using cooperative learning procedures, a one day workshop was held before school in August, a two day conference with a national expert in cooperative learning (Dr. David Johnson) took place in February, and monthly seminars were held in the junior high school. University consultants also visited participating teachers' classes to observe them conducting cooperative activities.

Facilitating Teacher. Staff development activities were designed to h[illegible] relevance for special and regular education teachers and educational a[illegible]s. A "facilitating teacher" (certified in regular and special education) was responsible for supporting regular class teachers in instructing students with disabilities and reinforcing the use of cooperative learning in the two schools. This teacher also assisted with data collection activities.

Peer coaching and teacher support group. Encouraging cooperation among teachers was another important goal of the project. For, as Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec (1986) noted, the teachers participating in the training are the ones who teach each other how to use cooperative learning procedures and who sustain each other's interest in doing so, not the consultants. Monthly seminar meetings with university consultants constituted a teacher support structure aimed at enhancing the practical implementation of cooperative learning techniques. Along with delivering information on cooperative learning and effective instruction, sessions were designed to facilitate sharing of ideas as well as solving problems related to cooperative learning and social integration. Setting up peer coaching teams within each school was another method used to foster skill in implementing cooperative learning procedures and create an atmosphere of support among teachers.

Evaluation of the Staff Development Model

Measures

Program analysis focused on two major areas of intended impact: student outcomes and teacher outcomes. Various types of data were collected, including questionnaires, rating scales, and interviews.

Student outcomes. The Classroom Life Instrument , developed by Roger and David Johnson at the University of Minnesota, was used to measure student perceptions of the "social climate" and degree of social support experienced in their classes. Students rated 59 Likert-type questions using a 5-point scale to indicate how true a statement was for them. Johnson, Johnson, Buckman and Richards (1985) identified the following 12 factors in the scale both theoretically and through previous factor analyses: cooperative learning, postive goal interdependence, resource interdependence, teacher academic support, teacher personal support, student academic support, student personal support, class cohesion, academic self-esteem, fairness of grading, achieving social approval and alienation.

Peer ratings. Peer acceptance was evaluated by administering a peer rating instrument . Students were asked to rate each of their classmates according to how much they would like to "work with" that person. A 5-point scale was used, with response categories ranging from "yes, very much" (5) to "no, not at all" (1). Students could also indicate if they did not know a particular student. Teachers were provided with scripted instructions on how to perform the ratings.

Descriptive data. Demographic data, degree of mainstreaming, behavioral ratings using the Behavior Rating Profile, WISC-R IQ levels, and school attendance were among the types of data collected on the special education students. Unfortunately, academic achievement outcomes, as assessed through standardized tests were not available.

Structured interviews. Special education students were interviewed to assess their perspectives on participating in cooperative groups in regular classes. The interviewer was a community member who was not affiliated with the cooperative learning project but had experience in working with students with disabilities. The structured interview consisted of 12 short-answer and open-ended questions.

Teacher Outcomes. Extent of teachers' use of cooperative learning techniques and their perceptions of the staff development project were assessed through self-ratings and questionnaires. Peer observations and observations by project staff were used to document skill in implementing cooperative learning procedures.

Evaluation Results and Discussion

Classroom Life. Students surveyed using the Classroom Life instrument were drawn from 16 classes in the middle school (5th and 6th grade) and junior high school (7th and 8th grade). On the October pretest 121 students (56 males and 65 females) participated and 90 participated (45 males and 45 females) on the May posttest (the decrease was due to transfers, absences, and a class dropping out). In half of the classes students had been working in cooperative learning groups to some extent since October. Their teachers were voluntary participants in the project. In the other classes, the teachers were not trained in cooperative learning procedures and were not using cooperative groups.

Pretest and posttest results were compared using the Wilcoxen nonparametric test. Overall, there were no significant differences between the cooperative classes and the noncooperative classes on pretest to posttest changes. Of the 59 items on the Classroom Life, significant differences from pretest to posttest occurred for ten items in the cooperative condition and for only one item in the noncooperative condition. One item that changed significantly in the positive direction in both conditions indicated that students felt that other students like to help them learn. Students in the cooperative classes indicated that they found it less difficult to speak their thoughts clearly in class at the end of the year than at the beginning of the year. Two items that changed significantly in the negative direction in the cooperative condition related to a perceived decrease over the school year in the degree of teacher support in helping students learn . Although some degree of lack of teacher support might be expected to occur over the school year, similar ratings did not occur in the noncooperative classes. This outcome in inconsistent with previous findings on cooperative learning and perceptions of teacher support, as measured by the Classroom Life instrument. Perhaps the students involved in these cooperative classes felt relatively more supported by their peers than by teachers when they worked in groups.

Peer Ratings. T-tests were used to assess changes in average peer ratings from October to May for each student in the cooperative and noncooperative classes.

A chi square test with Yate's correction procedure (due to small cell count) was used to determine if significant differences between conditions in the number of peer ratings on students with disabilities that changed significantly in a positive direction versus those that changed nonsignificantly or significantly in a negative direction from pretest to posttest. The range in the number of students rating each special education student was from 12 to 20. The result (X^2 =4.13, df=1, $p < .05$) indicates significant differences between conditions, favoring the cooperative classes. A similar test compared peer rating changes over the year on all students in the two conditions. Again, when significantly positive changes versus nonsignificant/significantly negative changes were compared in the cooperative and noncooperative classes, significant differences were found (X^2 =9.42, df=1, $p < .05$), favoring the cooperative classes.

We were also interested in knowing whether or not peer ratings on the special education students were correlated with their IQ levels or their standard scores on the Behavior Rating Profiles (BRP). The Pearson correlation coefficients show significant negative correlations between verbal scale IQ scores and peer ratings by other special education students in their special classes ($r = -.53$, $p < .04$). When ratings of special education and regular education classmates were combined, significant negative correlations also were found between verbal IQ scores and peer ratings ($r = -.54$, $p < .015$) and full scale IQ scores and peer ratings ($r = -.436$, $p < .05$). Interpretation of the negative correlations is that as IQ level goes up, the peer rating goes down, or vice versa. From these results, one might speculate that lower functioning students may be more likely to receive higher ratings from their peers than do the higher functioning students. Perhaps the more alike students are in their cognitive abilities, the higher are their expectations for acceptable behavior, which influences how much they like to work with one another.

Correlations between performance IQ scores and peer ratings were nonsignificant. Correlations between peer ratings and standard scores on the scales of the BRP (home, school, peer, teacher, and parent) were nonsignificant.

Structured Interviews. Twenty-three special education students participating in cooperative learning activities in special education and general education classes were interviewed to assess their opinions about

working in cooperative learning groups. Their responses to a small sample of items will be presented (a more detailed report can be obtained from the authors) Of the 23 students, 17 (74%) agreed that they liked working in cooperative groups, 3 (13%) said they weren't sure and 3(13%) said they did not like working in cooperative groups. When asked what they liked about working in cooperative groups, the following comments are selected from those that were contributed:

"It makes it less hard for me."
"You can be with a friend and it is easier."
"You get more accomplished--the work is more explained."
"You can get along with people you don't like."
"You can help each other learn new things."

When asked what they don't like about working in cooperative groups, some of the responses were the following:

"Sometimes you get paired up with someone you don't like."
"Working with a lot of people who goof off."
"When I work with people I really like, I get talking and don't get so much accomplished."
"When someone in your group doesn't work."
"I like working by myself and I had help from the teacher."

All responses to the question concerning "how other kids treat you in cooperative groups" were positive ("good," "pretty good") or neutral ("ok," "all right"). Regarding treatment by peers in classes without cooperative groups, a few negative comments were made ("mean," "they tease me a lot," "they treat me like I'm nobody"), but most comments were positive or neutral. Twenty (87%) of the students felt that the regular class students were friendlier to them this year, and 17 (74%) had made new friends in the regular class (4 did not and 2 already knew students from the preceeding year).

Students perceived their behavior as appropriate both in cooperative and noncooperative classes. Almost all students felt their behavior had improved over the school year. Fifteen (72%) students felt they learned "well," "good," or "better" in cooperative groups than in other types of classes, and 6 (26%) felt they did not learn as well in cooperative groups. Overall, special education students felt very positively about working in

cooperative groups and how they were treated by regular class students.

Questionnaire on Use of Cooperative Groups and Teacher Feedback. In June of the project year, teachers were invited to a luncheon to discuss future directions and provide feedback on the project. Teachers filled out a form on their use of cooperative learning groups which indicated that they were all conducting cooperative learning activities. Six of the nine teachers surveyed were using cooperative learning activities in their classes from 10% to 25% of the time and three of the teachers used cooperative activities from 25% to 50% of the time. At the beginning of the project none of the teachers surveyed had used cooperative learning groups in their classes.

Teachers also evaluated the project using a questionnaire that solicited both positive and negative feedback. A variety of positive remarks were made, including feedback on how helpful the support of the university consultants and the facilitating teacher were, how valuable the day-long training session in August and the cooperative learning conference with David Johnson were, how helpful the books on cooperative learning (Circles of Learning, Cooperative Learning Lesson Plans) were, and how excited they were about the students' progress and their positive reactions to learning in cooperative groups ("...the satisfaction of the shy child showing improved self-esteem."). Also, the feedback concerning the monthly small group meetings was very positive. Teachers appreciated the opportunity to discuss strategies and problems with their colleagues involved in the training. "The group meetings have been helpful in that we can share problems and successes, we can get answers to questions and get advice on how to do things differently, and (on) instruction." One teacher felt that shorter meetings would be an improvement (the meetings were at the end of the school day and lasted about 2 hours). When asked to contribute a more "ideal" way to learn about cooperative learning, one teacher's remark was: "Do not change anything. Being treated like professionals was refreshing."

When asked what would have improved the project, or what could have been done differently, the feedback was most helpful. Several teachers suggested that we spend more time initially with the "how to's" of cooperative learning in order to help them get a better start in developing and implementing cooperative lessons. One teachers' idea was to offer a more formal university course on cooperative learning at the beginning of the project and another wanted more workshops. Several teachers wished

they could actually have observed others using cooperative learning (rather than simply observing videotapes) before they started using the procedures themselves. Some teachers felt they could have benefitted from more contact with the facilitating teacher or university consultants for help in using cooperative learning techniques and dealing with special education students.

University consultants concurred with all the teacher recommendations. In initiating similar projects in other districts, we have offered a workshop/course that meets for a one day-long session and three follow-up sessions. This schedule allows for more content to be covered and permits teachers to try techniques in their classes, share what they are doing, and obtain feedback and support. We agree that support personnel should be more available to assist teachers. Careful study must be made of the role of the special educator in mainstreaming efforts. Our facilitating teacher was only available part-time, and her role and responsibilities would warrant a full time position and redefinition. Moreover, the peer coaching component of the project was not emphasized and carried through to the degree it should have been, in that teachers weren't meeting as often as we would have hoped.

Also, we have learned that the degree of involvement of school principals in the project should have been increased, as the principal is the person whose "primary responsibility...is to foster a school climate in which teachers have the courage to challenge their current instructional practices and strive to grow and develop professionally."(Johnson & Johnson, 1989, p.1:8). Principals were informed of the staff development activities in general and gave the necessary permissions, etc., but were not involved as inspirational leaders or active participants. An ideal situation would be to obtain a committment on the part of the entire teaching faculty, administrators, parents, and support staff to the notion of cooperative learning in a cooperative school. Recently David and Roger Johnson in their book entitled Leading the Cooperative School (1989) identified characteristics of a cooperative school, making the case that promoting an effective school which is also a cooperative school involves much more that training a subset of the teachers in the school. However, the resulting core of teachers trained in our techniques promises to set the stage and provide the impetus for a future cooperative school.

Linking Rural Schools

A commitment to expanding the cooperative learning training and support services throughout the state of Maine led to the development of the Northern New England Network for Cooperative Learning and the Center for Cooperative Learning at the University of Maine at Farmington. As people throughout the state heard of our training and support project, requests for replication in additional districts made it clear that teachers and administrators were anxious for an opportunity to share with and learn from others in the state. The purpose of the Center is to provide support to teachers and other professionals interested in cooperative learning and effective instruction procedures and to conduct field based research on cooperative learning. Network activities include dissemination of information (papers, books, bibliographies, contacts, advice etc.), the publication of a newsletter, and organization of an annual conference on cooperative learning. As a result of the increased demand for training (we have offered over 20 workshops this year), another conference has been scheduled to offer training by nationally reknowned experts to professionals throughout northern New England. At the conference, time will be devoted to further develop the concept of a regional network. One idea is to group teachers from job-alike areas who live within 30-60 miles of one another for support activities. A facilitator will help the conference participants form support groups to organize future meetings and activities. Next year our plans include continued growth of the Network and Center to provide increased support, training, and evaluation on cooperative learning and effective instruction.

Conclusion

Effective social integration of students with disabilities entails classroom situations in which regular students and students with special needs have opportunities for meaningful interaction. Cooperative learning situations provide an excellent context for such interactions to occur. When properly implemented, cooperative learning techniques produce improved academic achievement and improved interpersonal relationships among peers.

To impart skills in cooperative learning, a cooperative approach to staff development (including teacher support teams, teacher decision making, and peer coaching) was used. Evaluation results indicated that by the end of the year students in cooperative classes (a) felt more strongly that other students liked to help them learn and (b) found it less difficult to speak their thoughts in class, but (c) felt less supported by their teachers. Students in noncooperative classes also felt that other students liked to help them learn. Special education students in cooperative classes were rated more favorably by their regular class peers (according to how much they would like to "work with" them), than special education students in noncooperative classes. Nonhandicapped students in cooperative classes also rated one another more positively than students in noncooperative classes. Structured interviews with special education students indicated predominantly positive feelings about working in cooperative groups.

Teachers involved in the project were using cooperative learning procedures from 25% to 50% of the time in their classes by the end of the year. They evaluated the project favorably, particularly with respect to the training model, the emphasis on teacher decision making regarding staff development activities, and the support group meetings. Suggestions for improving the project focused on more intensive training earlier in the project and increased support from university consultants and the teacher facilitator.

As a result of the success of the project and numerous requests for training and support in cooperative learning in Maine, a Northern New England Network for Cooperative Learning and a Center for Cooperative Learning at the University of Maine at Farmington were established to provide assistance in cooperative learning with the goal of linking rural education personnel and rural schools. Our belief is that it is just as important to build collaborative and supportive relationships between schools, and among educational professionals (including university faculty, classroom teachers, educational assistants, administrators and parents) as it is to build collaborative and supportive relationships among students.

References

Larrivee, B. (1985). Effective teaching for successful mainstreaming. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Johnson, D.W. & Johnson, R.T. (1989). Leading the cooperative school. Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.

Johnson, D.W. & Johnson, R.T. Buckman, L.A, and Richards, P.S. (1985). The effect of prolonged implementation of cooperative learning on social support within the classroom. The Journal of Psychology, 119(5), 405-411.

Johnson, D. W., , Johnson, R. T., & Holubec, E. J. (1986). Circles of Learning. Minneapolis, MN: Interaction Book Company.

Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Maruyama, G. (1983). Interdependence and interpersonal attraction among heterogeneous and homogeneous individuals: a theoretical formulation and meta-analysis of the research. Review of Educational Research. 1983, 53, 5-54.

Slavin, R.E. (1980). Cooperative learning. Review of Educational Research, 50, 315-342.

PARENT'S GUIDE

TO ACCESSING PARENT GROUPS, COMMUNITY SERVICES, AND TO KEEPING RECORDS



INTRODUCTION

Families who have a child with a disability need information about their child's disability, about services available which can be helpful to their child, about federal and state laws and policies which affect their child, about support for their family when needed, and, as in all other families, how to live together comfortably while meeting everyone's needs. This is a large order!

NICHCY receives literally thousands of letters each year from families asking questions about disabilities, about school, about therapy, about recreation programs, about laws, about Individualized Education Plans (IEPs), and about other families in similar situations. In answering these questions, it has become apparent that what parents need is a course in the PROCESS of finding such information. When people know how to access the resources, they have the ability to explore their options. It is the self-confidence of knowing how to find the help needed, and the knowledge that there is still another "door to knock on" that keeps families going.

The chapters in this publication were written as a guide to the "how" of accessing services and organizing records for maximum efficiency. It was written by parents and friends of children with handicapping conditions, who want to share with you the lessons they have learned. Families who use these suggestions should be able to develop personalized local directories of services for their individualized needs. The materials are written to cover any disability, to discuss options in any state and to be general enough to be useful to families of children at any age, stage, or level of need. Attached to this publication is a **State Resource Sheet** for your state and a list of **Toll Free Numbers**. This resource sheet is updated annually; you should request a new copy if yours is more than one year old.

Of course, NICHCY is still available to answer your questions, provide additional referrals and to assist you whenever possible. Please contact us as needed. You may write to NICHCY at this address: NICHCY, P.O. Box 1492, Washington, D.C. 20013. Or you may call NICHCY at this toll free number: 1-800-999-5599.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Chapter 1
Guide To Parent Groups 1

Chapter 2
Guide To Community Services 9

Chapter 3
Rural Families 15

Chapter 4
Record Keeping 23

Attachments

This document was developed by Interstate Research Associates pursuant to grant no. G008720216 from the National Institute on Disability and Rehabilitation Research of the U.S. Department of Education. The contents of this document do not necessarily reflect the views or policies of the Department of Education, nor does mention of trade names, commercial products, or organizations imply endorsement by the U.S. Government.

This information is in the public domain unless otherwise indicated. Readers are encouraged to copy and share it, but please credit the National Information Center for Children and Youth with Handicaps.

Project Staff

Principal Investigator ..... Carol Valdivieso
Project Coordinator ..... Suzanne Ripley
Authors ..... Suzanne Ripley
Carol Rewers
Editor ..... Lana Ambler
Graphic Design ..... Nan McGavock

Thanks to Marilyn Wiehe who worked tirelessly to contact Parent-to-Parent groups across the nation. Special thanks to the Project Officer, Naomi Karp, for her support and encouragement.

The Effect of Sociocultural Factors on the Achievement of Minority Children

Richard F. Rodriguez, Ph. D.
Associate Professor
Western New Mexico University
Silver City, N.M. 88061

Richard F. Rodriguez, Ph. D.
Associate Professor
Western New Mexico University
Silver City, NM 88061

Abstract

This study investigated the amount of variance in the Peabody Individual Achievement Test (PIAT) and Wide Range Achievement Test - R (WRAT-R) which could be accounted for by the Sociocultural Scales--Family Size, Family Structure, Urban Acculturation, and Socioeconomic Status--within the Hispanic ethnic group of the System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment (SOMPA).

The sample group was comprised of 50 elementary age Mexican American children identified as learning disabled, and assigned part-time to a Resource Room. Results of the analysis indicated that significant correlations exist between Urban Acculturation and Socioeconomic Status and some subtests of the PIAT and WRAT-R. The results indicate that poor academic performance among lower SES children must be attributed to other factors in the child's development.

Introduction

Several authors have voiced serious concerns about the consequences of applying standardized psychological assessment measures to minority group children (Baca and Cervantes, 1984; Mercer and Lewis, 1979; Ysseldyke, 1979; Samuda, 1976). These authors state that many minority group children have been victimized by the application of standardized psychological measures that are culturally and linguistically biased and measure experiences and skills alien to their culture. In addition, more minority group children have been labeled, placed, tracked, grouped and guided on the basis of various test scores than from any other single factor in the classroom (Maestas, 1981; U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1979; Oakland, 1979).

There has been much concern on the part of parents and some special education personnel regarding the number of minority children in special education. Existing data appear to indicate that minority children are placed in special education out of proportion to their numbers in the general school population (Ortiz and Maldonado-Colon, 1986; Greenleaf, 1980; Mercer, 1979). The area where the data have proven most striking has been in classes for the mildly mentally handicapped. For example, Mercer (1973) has reported that Black children were seven times as likely and Mexican American children ten times as likely as Anglo children to be placed in special classes. Although these figures are based on observations in California, it is reasonable to expect that similar conditions occur whenever significant minority population exist, such as in Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, and Texas (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1979). In these southwestern states nearly one of every five children in public school is of minority ethnic background (U. S. Commission of Civil Rights, 1974). In addition, data from the Civil Rights Survey (1978) revealed that Arizona, California, Colorado and New Mexico had proportional discrepancies of Hispanic children in programs for the Educable Mentally Retarded. For example, in Colorado Hispanics constitute 15% of the total school enrollment but 26% of programs for the Educable Mentally Retarded. It was also reported that in New Mexico, Hispanics constitute 42% of the total school enrollment yet 57% in programs for the educable mentally retarded; Arizona 22% and 31%; and California with 21% and 27% respectively. However, Ortiz & Yates (1983) reported that in Texas, Hispanics are under represented in all categories of handicapping conditions except learning disabilities. In this category (LD), Hispanics are over represented. In Texas, Hispanics constitute 28% of the general school population but only 26% of the handicapped population. Ortiz & Yates (1983) also reported that Hispanics represented a 6.3% incidence in learning disabilities programs. When application of the Kaskowitz (1977) two percent incidence figure derived from national studies these authors found that 6.3% exceeds the expected number of learning disabled Hispanics by 315 percent!

As previously mentioned, at least one consequence of biased assessment practices is over representation of minority children in special education. Part of the problem is that adequate assessment instruments have not yet been developed which can fairly assess children of different linguistic or cultural groups (Baca & Bransford, 1981; Bernal, 1979). a more serious problem, however, is that there do not exist sufficient numbers of professional personnel adequately equipped to develop, administer, or interpret assessment instruments or procedures (Archuleta & Cervantes, 1981). Additionally, even for those children who are legitimately identified as requiring special education services, programs either do not exist or are inadequate (Wilkinson, Willigs, Ortiz, 1986; Baca, 1980; Hilliard, 1980). As a result, the testing establishment continues to be seriously challenged in regard to alleged discriminatory assessment practices involving minority group children. Through a series of litigation procedures method-

ology of norm-referenced testing itself and, more particularly, the conclusions and consequences flowing from the analysis of test results have been disputed. This movement has generated efforts to develop valid psychoeducational assessment techniques that take into account cultural and linguistic aspects. Thus, the educational field is currently witnessing a surge of interest in the sociocultural factors affecting the academic achievement of minority children. Research in this area points out that social and environmental factors play a crucial role in determining the extent to which educational potentialities are realized. For example, level of parental education, parental occupation, socioeconomic status, family size, and family structure have been identified as important in determining the educational achievement of many minority group children (Rodriguez, 1982, 1981).

There exists then a need for an efficient and effective system which will measure a child's intellectual ability taking into account sociocultural variables. The System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment (SOMPA) (Mercer and Lewis, 1977) is such a system.

Empirically it can be demonstrated that there exists a large amount of variance in school achievement among culturally and linguistically different children. However, it is not known whether and to what extent sociocultural variables explain this observable difference.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the amount of variance in the Peabody Individual Achievement Test (PIAT) and Wide Range Achievement Test - Revised (WRAT-R) which could be accounted for by the Sociocultural Scales--Family Size, Family Structure, Urban Acculturation, and Socioeconomic Status--within the Hispanic ethnic group of the System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment.

Method

Subjects - The study was conducted in an urban area of the Southwestern United States. The sample group was comprised of 50 elementary age Mexican American children identified as learning disabled, who were assigned part-time to a Resource Room. Parents of the 50 children were also subjects in the study. Subjects were drawn from nine schools which were selected because administrative records indicated a broad range of socioeconomic status among a predominantly Mexican American school population. The sample included 32 boys and 18 girls whose chronological age ranged from 81 months to 144 months with a Mean CA of 111.50 months (SD - 14.35).

Instruments - The System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment (SOMPA) measures a child's intellectual ability taking into account sociocultural variables. the SOMPA evaluates the child not only in terms of the standard norm, which gives his current level of function, but also in terms of socioculturally appropriate norms, which give his estimated learning potential.

The Peabody Individual Achievement Test (PIAT) (Dunn and Markwardt, 1970). The PIAT is an individually administered instrument which contains five subtests: Mathematics, Reading Recognition, Reading Comprehension, Spelling, and General Information. The Total Test is the sum of raw scores.

Procedure - The 50 children of the sample group were administered the PIAT by the researcher and graduate students enrolled in an educational testing class at the local university. The WRAT-R had been obtained by the Resource Room teacher of each participating school. The parents of the 50 children were administered the Sociocultural Scales of the SOMPA by the researcher. Administration of the scales was conducted in either English or Spanish depending on the preference of the parents. Individual homes of each of the parents was selected as the most desirable location.

Results

The purpose of this study was to investigate the amount of variance in the Peabody Individual Achievement Test (PIAT) and Wide Range Achievement Test - Revised (WRAT-R) which could be accounted for by the Sociocultural Scale—Family Size, Family Structure, Socioeconomic Status, and Urban Acculturation—of the System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment (SOMPA).

The data from this study show that the Sociocultural Scales did not contribute significantly to achievement tests scores as Mercer and Lewis (1977) demonstrated such factors contributed significantly to IQ scores. However, Urban Acculturation and Socioeconomic Status are significantly related to academic achievement.

In conclusion, this study revealed that sociocultural variables do not account for a significant amount of the variance of total scores on the PIAT and WRAT-R. However, the sociocultural variance which reflects the acculturation level of the family, and the socioeconomic status of the home, and expecially the Mexican American home, is significantly related to the achievement test performance of elementary age learning disabled Resource Room children. The effect was more prominent on performance on the PIAT than on the WRAT.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine whether sociocultural factors contributed significantly to achievement test scores as Mercer and Lewis (1977) had shown such factors contribute to IQ scores. The multiple regression analysis revealed that the amount of variance in the PIAT and WRAT-R scores which could be accounted for by sociocultural factors was not significant. However, Urban Acculturation and Socioeconomic Status were significantly related to certain areas of academic achievement.

A survey of the literature in the field of Special Education, and particularly the assessment of minority group children, revealed that during the past decade some research studies have been directed toward the academic achievement of lower socioeconomic and minority group children. These research efforts have stated that discriminatory practices exist in the educational assessment of minority group children using standardized psychological measures. However, data directed at the problem of demonstrating the effects of discriminatory psychoeducational assessment against minority group children is, for the most part, meager.

Furthermore, the results from such measures should be suspect because of their uncertain relationship with school tasks and their failure to provide information that aids instructional decision making (Cummins, 1982). Some authors have stated that poor performance on standardized instruments are due to factors such as faulty educa-

tional planning, inappropriate curricula and unsystematic teaching methods, and not to cognitive inferiority (Wilkinson, Willig and Ortiz, 1986; Almanza and Mosley, 1980). Data from this study revealed that the PIAT and WRAT are not discriminatory when used with lower socioeconomic and minority group children since a significant amount of variance could not be accounted for by sociocultural factors. Consequently, statements that standardized academic achievement measures are discriminatory appear to be based on socially acceptable biases and not on actual data.

The poor academic performance of many minority group children, then, must be attributed to other factors in the environment and not entirely to standardized academic assessment measures (Ortiz, Garcia, Holtzman, Polyzoi, Snell, Wilkinson, and Willig, 1985). Clearly, factors having to do with the depth of language comprehension, parental attitudes toward school, and teacher awareness of the educational problems some minority groups have must also be considered as possible factors in the process of identifying academic deficiencies (Bessant-Byrd, 1981; Kroth, 1975).

Urban Acculturation was significantly related to some individual subtests of the PIAT and WRAT-R. This indicates that Urban Acculturation was an important correlate of academic achievement. Of the four factors that comprise the Urban Acculturation scale, Anglization appeared to be the most important. It consists of five questions: the highest grade completed by the head of household, the highest grade completed by mother/mother substitute, whether mother/mother substitute was reared in the South, and an interview rating of the English language.

Data of the study also revealed that Socioeconomic Status was significantly related to the individual subtests of the PIAT and WRAT. Socioeconomic Status consists of two factors which are occupation of head of household and source of income, that is to say, whether or not the head of household provides most of the family income. Zucker and Prieto (1981), Banks (1979) emphasized that many minority group homes are of low economic status. Consequently, lack of learning opportunities outside the home and lack of availability of academic related materials in the home affect educational performance in children.

Implications

This study revealed that the children of the research study group are deficient in reading, writing, and arithmetic skills. An obvious remedy to this dilemma is teacher training in task analysis and effective teaching strategies (Kourilsky and Quaranta, 1987). Siegal (1972) emphasized that the keystone to effective child learning is effective teaching, that is, the teacher's ability to redirect teaching efforts so as to think along these lines: "I know how to play checkers. Can I teach this child to play checkers and what is the best way for him to learn?" (p.351).

Some researchers have stated that discriminatory practices exist in the psychological assessment of minority group children, particularly in the case of Mexican American children. According to the Task Force Findings Specifying Remedies Available for Eliminating Past Educational Practices Ruled Unlawful under Lau versus Nichols (U. S. Office of Health, Education & Welfare, 1975), educational assessments should be made by persons who can speak and comprehend the language of the child. However, there is a shortage of persons, primarily certified educational diagnosticians, who are fluent

in both English and Spanish in the public schools and who are qualified to ma educational judgments affecting minority group children, taking into account sociocultural variables (Rodriguez, Prieto, Rueda, 1984; Baca and Chinn, 1982; Saintz, 1980).

Recruitment policies must be established by universities so as to train minority group teachers and diagnosticians capable of implementing teaching expertise as well as educational cultural pluralism into the educational setting of minority group students. School Districts across the country are searching for and attempting to implement educational programs for their school-age populations. The results of this investigation provide school personnel with data that show the effect certain sociocultural factors have academic achievement, thus offering curricula builders and teachers avenues for better understanding the academically deficient child and, at the same time, challenging them to provide educational materials, instructions, and classroom environments relevant to each child (Prieto, Rueda, Rodriguez, 1981).

In conclusion, it must be remembered that assessment is only the first step in an educational program. Identification must be followed by diagnosis, appropriate intervention, and relevant classroom instruction. However, before the teaching process begins, Labov (1969) offered a phrase which may well serve as an excellent word of warning:

> Before we impose middle—class verbal style on children from other cultural groups, we should find out how much of this is useful for the main work of analyzing and generalizing, and how much is mere stylistic—or even dysfunctional. In high school and college middle-class children spontaneously complicate their syntax to the point that instructors despair of getting them to make their language simpler and clearer. In very learned journal one can find examples of jargon and empty elaboration—and complaints about it. Is the "elaborated code" of Bernstein really so flexible, detailed, and subtle as some psycholinguists believe? Is it not simply and elaborated style, rather than superior code or system?
>
> Our work in the speech community makes it painfully obvious that in many ways working-class speakers are more effective narrators, reasoners, and debaters than middle-class speakers who temporize, qualify, and lose their argument in a mass of irrelevant detail. Many academic writers try to rid themselves of that part of middle-class style that is empty pretension, and keep that part that is needed for precision. But the average middle-class speaker that we encounter makes no such effort: he is enmeshed in verbiage, the victim of sociolinguistic factors beyond his control (p. 12).

REFERENCES

Almanza, H. P. & Mosley, W. J. Curriculum adaptations and modifications for culturally diverse handicapped children. Exceptional Children, 1980, 46(8), 608-614.

Archuleta, K. & Cervantes, H. T. The misplaced child: Does linguistically different mean learning disabled? In Gonzales, P. E. (Editor), Proceedings of the Eighth Annual International Bilingual Bicultural Education Conference, Rosslyn, V. A., 1981.

Baca, L. M. and Cervantes, H. T. The Bilingual Special Education Interface, St. Louis, Missouri: Times Mirror/Mosby College Publishing Company, 1984

Baca, L. & Chinn, P. Coming to grips with cultural diversity. Exceptional Education Quarterly, February, 1982, 33-45.

Baca, L. & Bransford, J. Meeting the needs of bilingual handicapped children. Momentum, Boulder, CO: The University of Colorado, 1981, 26-29, 49-51.

Baca L. Policy options for insuring the delivery of an appropriate education to bilingual/bicultural hindicapped children. Unpublished paper, Council for Exceptional Children, 1980.

Banks, J. A. Teaching Strategies for Ethnic Studies (2nd. ed.) Boston, MA: Alyn and Bacon, 1979.

Bernal, E. M., Jr. The Education of culturally different gifted. Paper prepared for the National Society for the Study of Education, Chicago, 1979.

Bessant-Byrd, H. Competencies for educating culturally different exceptional children. In Nazarro, J. N. (Ed), Culturally diverse exceptional children in school. Reston, VA: ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children, 1981.

Cummins, J. The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In Schooling and language minority students- A theoretical framework. Los Angeles, CA: Bilingual Educational Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center, 1982, p. 3-49.

Data from the 1978 Civil Rights Survey of Elementary and Secondary Schools. Alexandria, VA: Killalea Associates, Inc., April 1980.

Dunn, L. M. and Markwardt, F. C., Jr. Peabody Individual Achievement Test, Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service, 1970.

Greenleaf, W. Work with SOMPA, Paper presented at the BEH-NIE-IEL Conference, Towards Equity in the Evaluation of Children Suspected of Educational Handicaps, Washington, D. C., May 1980.

Hillard, A. G., III. Cultural diversity and special education. Exceptional Children, 46(8), 1980, 584-588.

Jastak, S. & Wilkinson, G. S. The Wide Range Achievement Test-Revised, Wilmington, DE: Jastak Associates, Inc., 1984. (Formerly Guidance Associates of Delaware, Inc.)

Kaskowitz, D. H. Validation of State Courts of Handicapped Children. Volume II - Estimation of the Number of Handicapped Children in Each State. Menlo Park, CA: Stanford Research Institute, 1977.

Kroth, R. L. Communicating with parents of exceptional children: Improving parent-teacher relationships. Denver, CO: Love Publishing Co., 1975

Kourilsky, M. & Quaranta, L. Effective teaching: principles and practices. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1987.

Labov, W. The logic of non-standard English. In Alotis (Ed.), Georgetown University Roundtable on language and linguistics (1969): Linguistics and the teaching of standard English to speakers of other languages or dialects. Washington, D. C.: Georgetown University Press, 1970.

Maestas, J. The participation of Hispanics in Special Education. Paper presented at the Institute for Educational Leadership, Washington, D. C., March, 1981.

Mercer, J. R. & Lewis, J. F. System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment: Conceptual and Technical Manual. Riverside: Institute for Pluralistic Assessment and Training, 1979.

Mercer, J. R. & Lewis, J. F. System of Multicultural Pluralistic Assessment (SOMPA) New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1977.

Oakland, T. Research on the Adaptive Behavior Inventory for Children and the estimated learning potential. School Psychology Digest, 1979, 8(1), 63-70.

Ortiz, A. & Maldorado-Colon, E. Reducing inappropriate referrals of language minority students to special education. Journal of Reading, Writing and Learning Disabilities International, 1986, 2(1), 43-56.

Ortiz, A.; Garcia, S.; Holtzman, W. Jr.; Polyzoi, E; Snell, W. Jr.; Wilkinson, C. & Willig, A. Characteristics of limited English proficient Hispanic students served in programs for the learning disabled: Implications for policy, practice and research. Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin Handicapped Minority Research Institute on Language Proficience, 1985.

Ortiz, A. A. & Yates, J. R. Incidence of exceptionality among Hispanics: Implications for manpower planning. University of Texas at Austin, Department of Special Education, Division Bilingual Special Education, 1983.

Prieto, A.; Rueda, R. S.; Rodriguez, R. F. Teaching competencies for Bilingual/Multicultural exceptional children. Teacher Education and Special Education, 1981 (Fall Issue), 4(4), 35-39.

Prieto, A.; Zucker, S. Teacher perception of Race as a factor in the placement of behaviorally disordered children. Behavior Disorders, 1981, 7(1), 34-38.

Rodriguez, R. F.; Prieto, A. G.; and Rueda, R. S. Issues in Bilingual/Multicultural Special Education, Journal of the National Association for Bilingual Education, Volume VIII. (3), 1984.

Rodriguez, R. F. The Mexican-American child in Special Education. Las Cruces, NM: Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, 1982.

Rodriguez, R. F. Issues relating to the involvement of minority group parents in school. Reston, VA: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1981.

Saintz, P. Numbers of Teachers Employed in Special Education Across the United States. Special Education & Rehabilitation Services, Division of Planning/Personnel, Washington, D. C.: Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, 1980.

Samuda, R. J. Problems and issues in assessment of minority group children. In R. L. Jones (Ed), Mainstreaming and the minority child. Reston, VA: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1976.

Siegal, E. Task analysis and effective teaching. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 1972, 5(10), 579-532.

U. S. Bureau of the Census Current Population Reports, Series P. 20, No. 339. Persons of Spanish Origin in the United States, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1979.

U. S. Commission on Civil Rights. Toward quality education for Mexican-American education study. Washington, D. C.: February, 1974.

U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Task force findings specifying remedies available for eliminating practices ruled unlawful under Lau vs. Nichols. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1975.

Wilkinson, C.; Willig, A.;& Ortiz, A. Goals and objectives targeted in individualized education programs developed for exceptional limited English proficient and English proficient Hispanic students. Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin Handicapped Minority Research Institute on Language Proficience, 1986.

Ysseldyke, J. Issues in psycho-educational assessment, In Phye, G. D. and Reschly, D. (Editors), School Psychology: Methods and Role. New York: Academic Press, Inc., 1979.

Charles L. Salzberg
Sarah Rule
Jennifer Chen
Julie Fodor-Davis
Robert Morgan
Department of Special Education
Utah State University
Logan, Utah 84322-6500

The Application of Video Disc Technology In Preservice Teacher Training

Sher (1978) noted that 67% of the school districts in the United States are classified as rural, remote, or isolated. Rural school districts face a distinct challenge in securing and retaining sufficient numbers of competent staff (Helge, 1984; Helge, 1983) Compounding the recruitment problem is the fact that it is difficult to provide specialized training to staff in rural and remote areas. First, individuals with specialized expertise tend to be in universities which are not proximate to remote school districts and second, the cost of sending rural personnel to more populous areas for training usually requires financial resources in excess of those available to rural districts. Finally, teaching staff in rural and remote areas need a broad base of knowledge because there are few specialized programs for students with low incidence handicaps.

The emerging videodisc technology has potential to temper these problems to some extent. There is a growing use of video discs in education and special education (Thorkildsen and Friedman, 1984) although, to date, there have been few applications for training in special education teachers (Rule, Salzberg, & Schulze, 1988). Thus, there is little scientific information available at this time bearing on the question of how to most effectively use video discs in teacher training. The question is complex. First, video disc programs vary extensively in instructional design, in their scope of content, and in their quality. Second, the most effective use of a video disc program may be different for novice trainees and for experienced teachers. Third, how videodisc programs are best used might depend upon the type of content under instruction. In particular, a more multifaceted training methodology may be required to teach trainees to perform instructional techniques than to simply give them knowledge about those techniques. For example, it is relatively easy for trainees to learn that they should praise students and that their praise should be frequent, descriptive, varied, sincere, and age-appropriate. However, trainees who consistently describe the attributes of effective praise may still not praise students effectively when they are teaching. How to best use videodiscs in teacher training will probably differ for knowledge acquisition than for performance training. This paper addresses methodology issues in relation to a videodisc-assisted training program for preservice teachers developed at Utah

State University (Salzberg, Rule, Schulze & Fodor-Davis, 1988) titled Effective Instruction: Techniques for Classroom Interaction (EI:TECI).

The EI-TECI curriculum is a Level 1[1] group instruction videodisc program that is intended for novice, preservice teacher trainees. The curriculum consists of two laser videodiscs, a comprehensive trainer's manual and a trainees' manual. There are four units in the Program (see Figure 1). The first

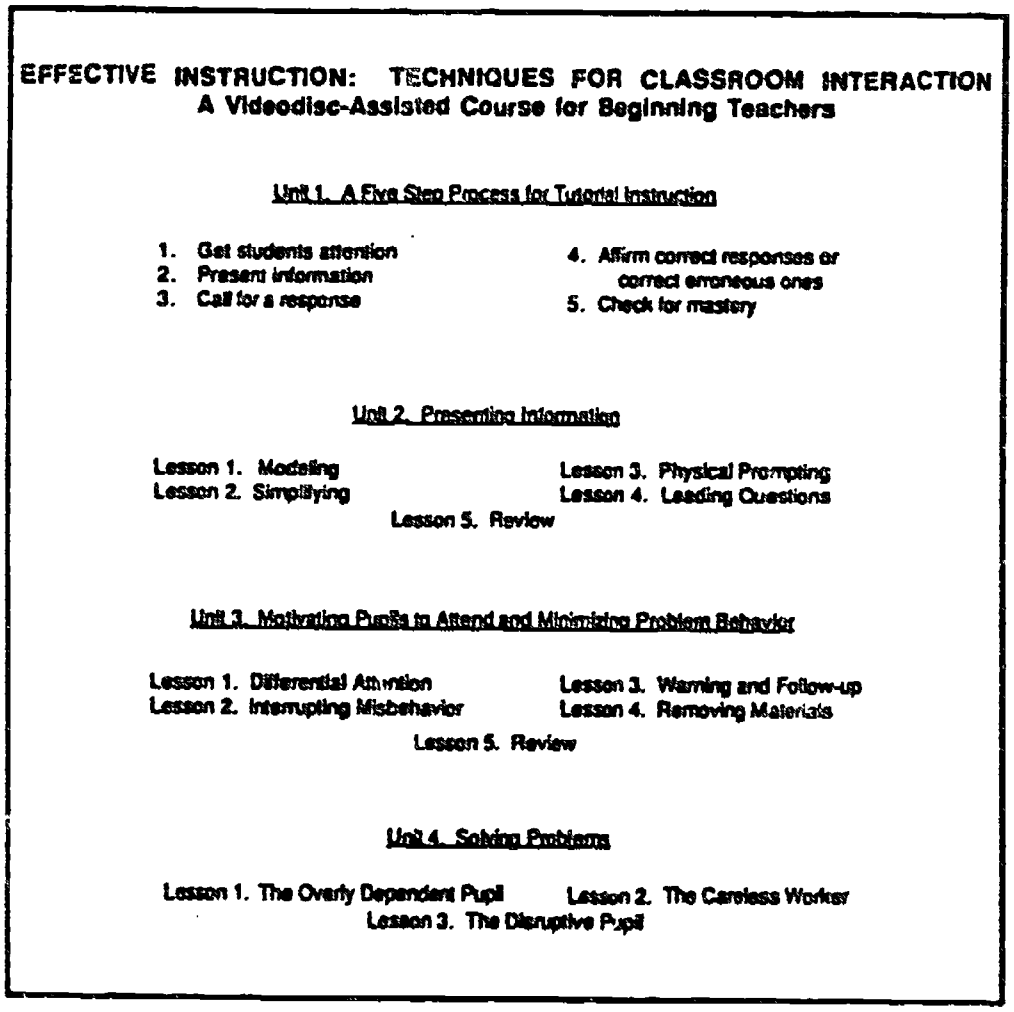


Figure 1. The content of the EI-TECI Program

unit presents a 5-step teaching sequence that assures that trainees will learn to carefully monitor student responses, reinforce accurate performance and correct errors. In Unit 2, trainees learn to use modeling, simplify complex responses, physically prompt and to use leading questions to help pupils arrive at correct answers as independently as possible. In Unit 3, trainees learn how to encourage pupils to attend to their work and how to minimize problem behavior.

[1]Level 1 videodisc programs are generally intended for group instruction and are controlled by the instructor using a hand held remote control rather than by a microcomputer. For more information about the basic types of videodisc systems, see Salzberg, Rule, Chen, Fodor-Davis, Morgan and Schulze (1988). Copies of that article may be obtained from the author.

Finally, Unit 4 provides effective strategies for teaching pupils who are overly dependent, careless in their work, or mildly disruptive.

Instructional Design

Formative evaluations during the development of the EI-TECI curriculum suggested that in order for preservice trainees to learn targeted instructional techniques, a 5-stage teaching process is required in which they learn: (1) that how teachers interact with pupils is important; (2) to identify relevant dimensions of teacher-pupil interaction; (3) to make discriminations about critical attributes of teacher interactions from video scenarios and from live observations; (4) to perform instructional techniques rather than just talk about them; and finally, (5) to apply the instructional techniques in public school classrooms. This 5-stage teaching process led to the development of a lesson structure that is used throughout all four units in the EI-TECI program. The structure is illustrated in Figure 2.

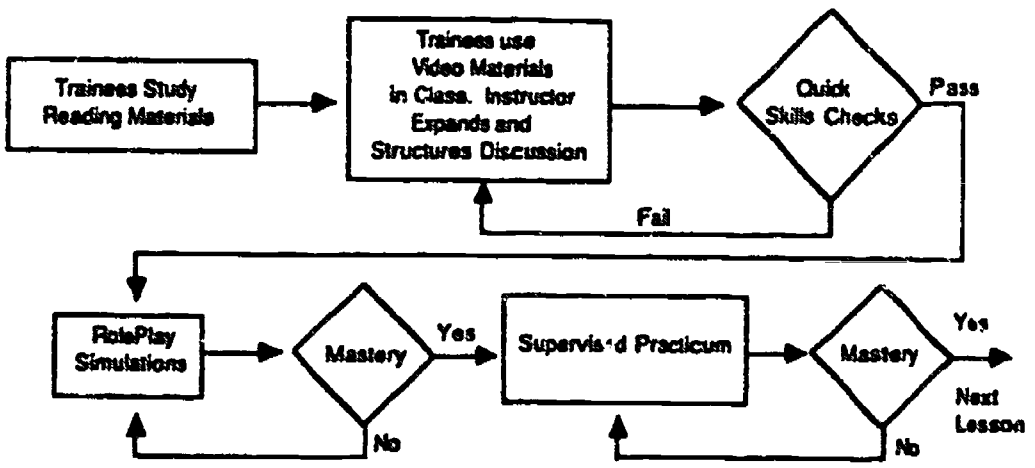


Figure 2. The lesson structure used for all units of the EI-TECI program.

Readings. At the beginning of each lesson, trainees study reading material at home. Most of this material is in the trainee's manual which is included in videodisc-assisted curriculum. Readings provide knowledge that helps trainees understand the context in which the instructional techniques are used and how to use them appropriately. Sometimes instructors assign additional readings to expand trainees' knowledge or to provide a particular theoretical orientation.

Videodisc Based Discrimination Training. After completing the readings, trainees use the videodisc material in class. First, techniques are demonstrated on the videodisc with narration that explains the technique and highlights its relevant features. After the demonstration, the instructors may answer questions, expand the explanation on the videodisc, or encourage discussion. Next, a series of video scenes are presented in which the technique is sometimes correctly applied and sometimes not correctly applied. After watching each scene, trainees respond to questions contained in their manual. The trainers' manual has the same questions accompanied with answers. There are several types of questions. One type focuses on procedural aspects of the technique. These questions teach trainees to label techniques and to identify their components.

Another type of question addresses whether the technique is performed correctly. These questions teach trainees how to distinguish whether the technique is being applied appropriately. A third type of question relates techniques to principles of learning and effective instruction practices. These questions help trainees develop a conceptual base to help them to generalize their skills. In addition to answering questions, trainees learn to make discriminations about teaching techniques by taking data as they watch designated video scenes. Observation forms in the trainer's and trainees' manuals accompany scenes designated for data taking. In the trainer's manual, the forms are already filled in; in the trainee's manual, the recording forms are blank. For data taking scenes, trainees watch the video scenario several times. Sometimes they watch them to answer questions and sometimes they watch them to record data. The advantage of videodisc is evident in data collection exercises, since scenes can be reshown as many times as necessary for trainees to learn to observe accurately. Further, scenes can be shown in slow motion, even frame by frame, so that trainees may see the teacher-pupil interactions more clearly.

Roleplay Simulations. When discrimination training with the videodisc is completed, trainees should be able to label a technique, discuss its relevant attributes, describe when and how to use it appropriately, take data on its appropriate use, and explain how the technique fits into a conceptual framework. However, at this stage, trainees can not necessarily perform the technique. Roleplay simulations that accompany each unit provide trainees the opportunity to practice performing the targeted teaching skills. In roleplay simulations, one or more trainees play "pupils," one plays "teacher," and one serves as a colleague coach. The "pupils" are cued with cards to behave in ways that call for the application of the targeted teaching techniques. The colleague coach observes the simulation and gives feedback to the "teacher." Printed forms guide observations during the simulation and structure the feedback process.

The videodisc program includes scenes that are used to introduce the roleplay simulation and teach trainees how to give accurate, constructive, feedback so that they can more aptly be a colleague coach. At the completion of the roleplay simulations, trainees should have learned to actually perform the targeted instructional techniques and to give feedback to one another.

Supervised Practicum. Unfortunately, performance in a roleplay simulation does not guarantee that trainees will apply the techniques appropriately when they are teaching pupils with handicaps in public school classrooms. Consequently, after roleplay simulations, trainees are required to apply the instructional techniques as they teach pupils in their practicum. On site supervision helps trainees adapt instructional techniques to their particular teaching situations and affirms that they have, in fact, mastered the techniques. There are three levels of supervision. First, trainees serve as colleague coaches for one another at the practicum site. Second, a university supervisor visits trainees in their classroom to provide consultation and to verify their skills. Finally, cooperating teachers also observe trainees and provide feedback.

Discussion and Concluding Remarks

Videodisc technology is a versatile medium that combines the advantages of motion video, narration, graphics, and interactivity. In the EI-TECI program, videodisc material is used to impart knowledge and to help trainees learn to differentiate among teaching techniques and understand the attributes that determine their appropriate use. Videodisc material also helps trainees learn to take data on teaching performance and provide constructive feedback to one another to support roleplay simulations and practicum supervision. Videodiscs are a flexible medium. Instructors may repeat scenes to help trainees see the more subtle aspects of teaching interactions. Instructors may also expand information presented on the videodisc with additional readings, lectures, or demonstrations. In fact, instructors may create entirely new programs with the video material on the disc by selecting and re-sequencing scenes and fitting scenes with didactic information that emphasizes different concepts.

Level 1 videodisc programs have particular promise for training personnel in rural and remote areas because they are easy to disseminate. Level 1 videodiscs require only two pieces of standard, commercially available equipment: a videodisc player and a monitor. The equipment is relatively inexpensive, simple to operate, easy to maintain, and reliable in use. Most important, Level 1 videodisc programs can be taught effectively by a wide range of instructors if they are accompanied by a comprehensive trainers' manual, as the EI-TECI program is. Videodisc based programs can be used in inservice training to give teams of staff who serve children with handicaps a common knowledge base. Combined with in-class supervision, this knowledge base can be translated into consistent in-class instructional practice across team members. Such training may be particularly important in rural areas as both professional and paraprofessional staff may need to rely on inservice training to assist them in serving children with divergent needs.

Videodisc technology is a powerful tool for training instructional personnel and will gradually become more popular as a greater number of programs become available. However, videodiscs are not a panacea! Used in isolation, videodiscs have distinct limitations. The most important limitation is that trainees' responses to videodiscs are primarily verbal. That is, trainees verbalize answers to questions, describe the interactions that they observe in the video scenes, record data, and discuss concepts related to the techniques that they are learning. Verbal knowledge about instructional techniques sets the stage for learning to perform those techniques; however, it does not, in itself, assure competent performance. For that reason, it is important to emphasize in closing this paper that videodisc programs should be integrated with other training methods such as roleplay and supervised practicum to assure that trainees learn to perform rather than simply talk about instructional techniques, and especially, that they learn to apply them while they teach pupils in public school classrooms.

References

Helge, D. I. (1983). Images: Issues and trends in rural special education - January 1983. National Rural Research Project, Center for Innovation and Development, Murray, KY.

Helge, D. I. (1984). The state of the art of rural special education. Exceptional Children, 60(4), 294-305.

Rule, S., Salzberg, C. L. & Schulze, K. A. (1988). The role of videodiscs in special education methods courses. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Salzberg, C. L. Rule, S., Chen, J., Fodor-Davis, J., Morgan, R., and Schulze, K. (in press). Videodisc technology in teacher training: Advantages and limitations. Teacher Education and Special Education.

Salzberg, C. L. Rule, S., Schulze, K. A., & Fodor-Davis, J. (1988). Effective instruction: Techniques for classroom interaction. A videodisc assisted course for beginning teachers. Logan, Utah: Outreach and Development Division, Developmental Center for Handicapped Persons, Utah State University.

Sher, J. P. (1978). A proposal to end federal neglect of rural schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 60, 280-282.

Thorkildsen, R., & Friedman, S. (1984). Videodiscs in the classroom. I.H.E. Journal, April, 90-95.

Dr. Nanci A. Scheetz
Director, Program for the Hearing Impaired
North Florida Junior College
1000 Turner Davis Drive
Madison, FL 32340

MAINSTREAMING THE HEARING-IMPAIRED STUDENT IN THE COLLEGE CLASSROOM: A COMPREHENSIVE APPROACH

Introduction

If one were to examine the deaf adult population today and describe its economic status in a single term, it could be labeled as "underemployment". (Jacobs, 1980). According to Jacobs there are several possible causes for this including:

1. Inadequate education
2. Inadequate social adjustment
3. A poor public image
4. Poor service by programs that should serve the adult deaf
5. Isolation of deaf adults (pp. 103-104)

These factors coupled with the changes in technology in today's world of work have created vocational barriers for the unprepared, undereducated, deaf adult.

Since 1965 over 6,000 new types of jobs have been created and over 8,000 that existed before then are currently extinct. In addition, educational requirements for employment are increasing and there has been a shift from manual, semi-skilled, and unskilled jobs to more white-collared jobs. (Mindel & Vernon, 1971.) Today's high school graduates are faced with the task of securing additional training or facing a grim vocational future.

In a recent article published in the Journal of the American Deafness and Rehabilitation Association, Martin presents some startling facts. He states:

> We know that in the hearing population, of the people who are one year out of high school, more than 82% have a job. Only about 15% are not employed. However, in the hearing-impaired population only a little more than one-half are in what we call the "work force", and only half of that group have regular steady employment. (p. 36.)

Education is not the sole factor contributing to underemployment. Those individuals completing training programs who are qualified for competitive employment often find themselves working in areas where little or no education is required. Others may be hired within their field only to find that they soon reach their vocational plateau and additional promotions are not forthcoming. This issue was one of the topics of discussion in a study conducted by Schein and Delk in 1974. In The Deaf Population of the United States they provided the public

with statistics pertaining to education and employability of deaf adults. Their research supported the fact that although educated deaf individuals enter the work force several of them are never given the opportunity to explore their range of abilities.

> For example, almost 43 percent of deaf adults who have completed 13 years or more of school (i.e., have one or more years of higher education) have principal occupations in the following categories: clerical, transit and nontransit operatives, farm and nonfarm laborers, and service and household workers. Underemployment certainly describes many of these job placements, though not necessarily all. Of those who completed one or more years of secondary education, 6% are employed as laborers. (p. 85.)

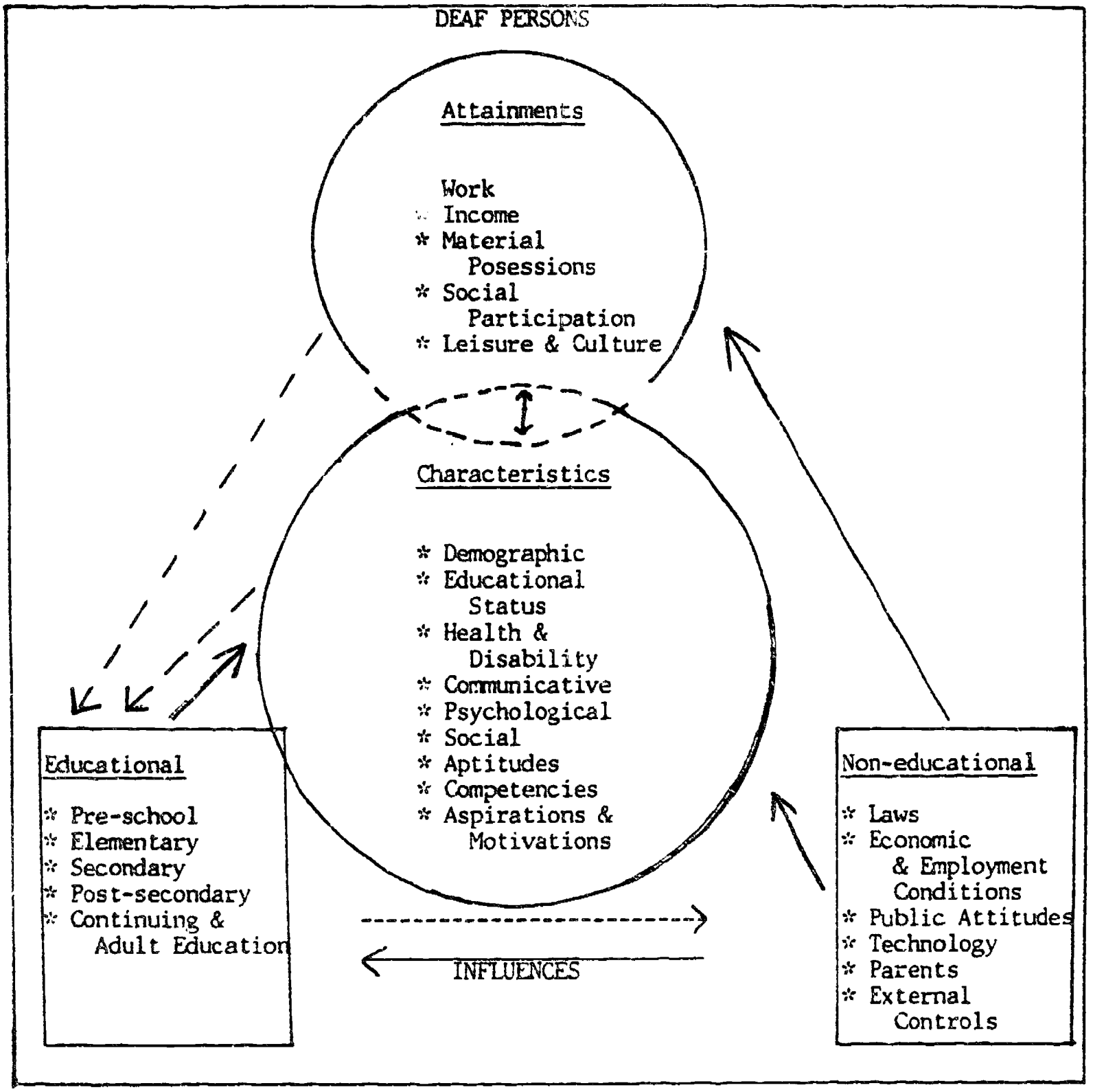
Although Schein & Delk's publication was produced fourteen years ago more recent surveys tend to reflect similar findings. Those individuals who had earned a college degree were able to find employment in professionally related occupations. However, once placed in their field of work achieving upward mobility was often hampered. This has been partially attributed to their entering occupational areas which do not foster career enhancement or because of the fact that individuals enter careers much closer to their maximum professional potential thus limiting their opportunity for additional advancement. (Welsh & Walker, 1988.)

What are the characteristics of this population and what types of training are available to prepare them for possible employment in today's society? In the next two sections both issues will be examined and components of a model post-secondary program will be identified and defined.

Attributes of Deafness Which Influence Success in Education

Educators of the deaf agree that several factors contribute to the success or failure of the student in the college classroom. Physical attributes include type and degree of loss, age of onset, and secondary handicapping conditions. Additionally, one's family and economic background, previous educational experience and social encounters all impact on the development of the individual. Although deafness and the ramifications of the disability provide a springboard for identifying this population, the unique characteristics of each individual are critical in regard to potential success in an educational program.

The concept of factors influencing one's success in the educational arena has been illustrated succinctly in a model developed by Stuckless, Clarq, and DeCaro (Stuckless, et.al., 1985.). In an article describing educational and noneducational influences on the attainments of deaf persons, they focus on those components which contribute to the development of the individual. Their premise states that although education empacts on an individual's development those influences which are of an educational nature may have an even more significant impact on one's development. (p. 208.)



Model 1 (p. 208)

———— solid lines indicate these factors directly affect characteristics of deaf people

---------- dotted lines indicate the educational impact on non-educational characteristics are not as strong as the non-educational components

By the time a student reaches the post-secondary level he has been shaped by a number of contributing factors. He will enter the classroom with a realm of background experiences and preconceived ideas of what he hopes to gain from the college experience. Deaf persons are as unique as their hearing counterparts. Similarly, their life experiences and their rate of maturation influence the level at which they will enter the educational environment.

In order for post-secondary institutions to prepare deaf individuals to live independantly and secure vocational placements within our hearing society programs must be established and/or enhanced to provide for the holistic development of the individual. Far too often in the past a particular trade or skill has been emphasized with little regard for the students socio-educational development upon entering the program. More attention must be given to assessing the total needs of the student in order for the individual to graduate from his or her program having developed those characteristics which will foster independence.

Post-secondary Programs for the Hearing Impaired in the United States

Until fairly recently deaf students had very limited opportunities to acquire a post-secondary education. If they did well academically in secondary school they had the option of attending Gallaudet University, the only Liberal Arts university in the world for the deaf, or the National Technical Institute for the Deaf. Within the last several years, many post-secondary programs have been providing services to deaf students therefore enabling more of them to obtain a college education. Today there are approximately 150 colleges and universities providing programming for hearing impaired students. (Rawlings, et.al., 1988.) Depending on whether the student selects a college with an exclusive deaf enrollment, or one in which he will be mainstreamed with hearing students will determine the various challenges he will encounter.

Because the focus of this paper relates to the post-secondary hearing impaired students mainstreamed on a hearing campus, only those issues pertaining to that specific type of educational environment will be addressed.

When a deaf individual decides to attend a hearing college it may be his first real contact with the hearing world. The standards for behavior that were accepted previously in schools for the deaf may be viewed as immature by post-secondary hearing standards.

Generally speaking, the deaf college student will enter the college environment educationally deprived. Due to the lags in educational development he will enter college functioning at a lower achievement level. His potential may be average or above but his attainment lower. This educational lag will encumber the deaf college student's progress through school.

> The most salient characteristic of low-achieving deaf persons is the overwhelming majority with normal potential...They represent a failure of education and other services and are testimony to a waste of human resources.

> It is obvious that the deaf person faces the world with an educational handicap that is a greater disability than his deafness. (Vernon, p. 258.)

Oftentimes the educational handicap is interpreted by the deaf individual to mean "dumb" or "stupid". He may feel very inadequate when interacting in the classroom and, therefore, withdraw from his peers, further isolating himself. On the other hand, he may release his frustration on those around him, affecting a mode of aggression causing others to withdraw from him--thus isolation also occurs.

Within the confines of a hearing educational setting the deaf individual may experience feelings of inadequacy, the stigma of being different, and his own frustrations of dealing with the new educational setting. If he is unsure of himself and what he is able to accomplish he will not be able to look beyond himself.

In an article published by the American Annals of the Deaf entitled "Dimensions of Mainstreaming" Kathryn Opton supports the above premise. She states that success may not occur solely by placing a student in a mainstreamed environment with resources and support services. She continues by emphasizing the need for the program to enhance all aspects of the individuals educational experience. (Opton, 1986.)

Within her naturalistic study she formulated three hypotheses pertaining to hearing impaired students participating in a post-secondary setting. In essence she states that:

1: the participation of hearing impaired students in the regular classroom may be impeded by the transmission of communication thus isolating hearing impaired students from group interaction.
2: the ability of hearing and hearing impaired students to relate to each other is dependent on them becoming comfortable with each others presence.
3: mainstreaming can be successful when hearing impaired students can accomplish required class assignments, utilize support services, and find acceptance of hearing students and classroom instructors. (pp. 327-329)

In order for the hearing impaired students to enter the domain of the post-secondary hearing campus and be successful, he must be able to acknowledge any personal educational lags, accept support services, and be provided with a training program which encompasses all aspects of educational and independent living skills.

What are the characteristics of a sound mainstreamed program? What elements need to be included to provide today's hearing impaired students with employment skills? The next section will focus on these issues.

Characteristics of Post-secondary Programs for the Hearing Impaired

As noted above, mainstreaming hearing impaired students is still a relatively recent concept. In 1961 Riverside City College, Riverside, California was the first two-year college to establish a program for deaf students. By 1968 three major new programs were created and by the

early 70's, 22 were in existence. The growth trend has continued and today throughout the United States there are approximately 150 such programs. (Stuckless, 1973)

Administrators and educators associated with these programs generally concur that certain elements are essential in maintaining a successfully mainstreamed program. Those characteristics deemed significant are:

1. Curriculum
2. Support Services
3. Personnel
4. Funding
5. Student Population
6. Commitment of Administration to the Program

In addition to these components, other elements pertaining to the overall development of the student must be incorporated in order to prepare the hearing impaired individual for competive employment, or advanced training when he graduates from the institution.

North Florida Junior College has established a model program for hearing-impaired students. Although the program is relatively young, it is comprehensive in design and utilizes a holistic approach to education. By examining the characteristics listed above and exploring the unique features of this program, one can gain insight as to how hearing-impaired students can be successfully mainstreamed in small rural junior colleges. In the pages which follow these components will be discussed in depth.

Providing Quality Programming in Rural Colleges for Mainstreamed Hearing-Impaired Students

Geographic Location

One distinguishing characteristic of small rural colleges is the size of the campus and the geographic location. Due to the size factor students entering these campuses tend to establish a more personal rapport with the faculty and administrators and are viewed as an "individual" rather than a "number". Those students requiring individualized instruction or special services are quickly identified and the transition between their high school setting and the college campus occurs within a short period of time.

This dimension of the program is particularly beneficial for hearing-impaired students. As noted before, deaf students entering college come from as diverse backgrounds as hearing students. However, for those students who received the majority of their educational training in a residential school for the deaf, this may be their first academic encounter with hearing peers. As a result it is of paramount importance for many of them to be identified as an individual from the onset of their post-secondary training. Those hearing-impaired individuals registering in larger universities stand a greater chance of becoming identified by a number and can become lost in the system early in the process.

Research reflects that residential schools for the deaf have a tendency to breed dependency. As a result, deaf students entering college for the first time may encounter a greater degree of success if they enroll in a small institution which can accomodate them as they strive for more independence.

Based on the same premise, geographic location of the small college can be a positive attribute for this population. Again, those students who have resided in a residential facility may be living independently in the community for the first time. Many families and students alike are faced with concerns revolving around the independent living aspects that college life affords. By placing students in a "small town atmosphere", they have heightened opportunities to explcre their surroundings without being swallowed by the magnitude of the metropolitan area.

It is important to emphasize that size and location of the campus play an integral part in enhancing a program of this nature.

Curriculum

The curriculum provided by an institution is of vital importance to anyone involved in education. Preparing individuals to live fulfilled and independent lives is at the core of educational development. Within this section the curriculum at North Florida Junior College will be discussed by viewing four different components: the Summer Preparatory Program, Vocational Education, Academic Degree Programs and Developmental Course Work.

Summer Preparatory Program

Summer Prep Programs are not uncommon among colleges which host hearing-impaired programs. Emphasis is often placed on general orientation, testing, developmental work, and recreational activities. North Florida Junior College recognizes this need and incorporates these elements into their program. In addition, the summer program has been expanded to maximize on community involvement. The premise for this lies in the desire to acquaint the students with the community and have professionals and businessmen become familiar with the students from the onset of their arrival. Students are taken to the various businesses and social service agencies where they become familiar with their location and function. This is one of the first steps toward providing them with independent living skills. This involvement with the community continues through the duration of the program. The same businesses and social service agencies are later used for On the Job Training sites and later as potential employment sites. Because this program does not have dormitory facilities the students are housed in apartments. As a result, within the three week training period the students are provided with additional instruction in:

Money management
Basic first aid
Cooking skills
Utilizing support services

Consumerism
Legal rights and responsibilities
Sexuality
Apartment know-how

By capitalizing on the resources in a small, rural community and integrating the students into the framework of daily activities, that core of skills so vital to independent living can begin to be enhanced.

Vocational Education

Within the Vocational area North Florida Junior College offers training opportunities in six areas. They are as follows: automotive, cosmotology, drafting, masonry, building maintenance technology, and office technology. Hearing-impaired students may enroll in one of four of these six areas. Students do not enroll in the auromotive repair or the cosmotology areas as job placement upon the completion of these degrees is relatively slim. Students do compete succesfully in the remaining four areas.

Drafting

The drafting department provides training in three specialized areas; architectural, civil, and machine drafting. Students are mainstreamed into the classroom and compete with their hearing peers. They may enroll in this program for three years and cover all aspects of drafting.

Masonry

This one year program prepares the student for employment as brick layers' helpers. The class primarily consists of hearing students. Hearing-impaired students participate fully and oftentimes compete in state and national VICA competitions.

Building Maintenance Tecnology and Office Technology

These two programs consist entirely of hearing-impaired students. The classes function as self-contained classes for deaf students on a hearing campus. As a result, these students do not face many of the frustrations which are encountered by mainstreamed college students.

Although interpreters are provided for all of the vocational classes, many of the instructors develop a certain level of competency within the area of manual communication therefore establishing a good rapport with the students.

Class size averages fifteen students which affords those enrolled in the class with the opportunity to receive individual instruction.

On the Job Training

An integral part of the vocational education program lies in the area of On the Job Training. Both first and second year students

receive the opportunity to work in the community. OJT experiences are designed as realistically as possible to introduce the student to the world of work. Within the Office Technology program, second year, second semester students receive a half day of training five days a week in the community. This provides an excellent transition into the work force.

Academic Degree Programs

In the fall of 1988, NFJC opened its doors to those hearing-impaired students wishing to pursue an Associate of Arts degree. Based on the ramifications of deafness and the often educational lags in the academic area a special three plus two program was designed.

Students wishing to enter the A.A. degree program begin by enrolling in a year of developmental course work. Upon raising their scores to the academic level they then enter the traditional college level classes.

Because North Florida is located in a rural area and many of the hearing students are impoverished academically, they also enroll in the developmental classes. This in itself helps to alleviate the stigma that only deaf individuals need developmental course work.

By providing students with the option of selecting an academic or a vocational tract they have the flexibility of changing majors within the same institution. This is a real advantage for a vocational office tech student who is doing exceptionally well and decides to switch to a more academic degree in business education. It works equally well for the student who feels he wants to pursue an A.A. degree only to find that the course content is too difficult. By providing a comprehensive selection students can move within the system without changing institutions. This is especially helpful for the hearing-impaired student who may be unsure of his career aspirations.

Developmental Course Work

There are two types of developmental courses at NFJC. Those students pursuing an A.A. degree enroll in developmental courses with an academic focus. However, students in the vocational area enter developmental courses which will provide them survival skills. Within the vocational area students enroll in: developmental English, reading, math, and employability skills. Although all of the class objectives are related to preparing the students for daily living, the classes in English and employability skills merit particular attention.

Vocational Developmental English

This class is taught by a teacher of the deaf in an ASL format, familiarizing the students with their own native language and then teaching them how to transfer it into standard written English. Because the majority of prelingually deaf individuals utilize ASL as their native language the theory is that these students will be able to enhance their English writing skills by first understanding the grammar and syntax of their own language. Through a series of modules and video

taped signed story presentations the students begin to write in a more traditional English fashion. The goal of the course is to provide the students with the written English skills required to communicate their needs to the hearing public.

Employability Skill Training

During the last semester of their vocational training students enroll in an employability skills class. This course focuses on writing resumes, job interviewing techniques, job expectations and the art of maintaining employment once it has been secured. Structured within the class are actual interviews with potential employers and campus administrators. Interviews are video taped and the students receive feedback on their performance. By the conclusion of the class students have a resume to send to potential employers and they have gone through the mechanics of a job interview.

Support Services

Inherent in any mainstreamed program is the need for qualified personnel. The support team consists of interpreters, tutors, notetakers, counselors, and personnel who can help foster personal and social growth on the part of the students.

NFJC provides all of these support services. In addition, the program has designed a component which is often overlooked in today's programming. This vital component lies within the independent living area.

Independent Living Skills Training

As noted earlier, from the onset of this program, an independent living specialist works with the hearing impaired population. After their initial training in money management, first aid, etc., the specialist meets with the students on a regular basis to insure that this period of transition is being mastered. Financial problems, roommate disputes, and social difficulties are turned into learning experiences. All of those non-educational influences which impact on the student's education are dealt with. Every effort is made to resolve those difficulties so the student can pour his or her energies into their educational classes. The philosophy of the program states that those situations occuring outside of the classroom have exceptional merit and strategies are designed to incorporate them into learning experiences.

Personnel

It goes without saying that the quality of a program is reflective of the staff who are involved in it. In order to insure a successful program, faculty and staff, outside the field of deafness must receive orientation and training specific to the field. Faculty and staff

handbooks are distributed and an open line of communication must remain between program personnel and college faculty and staff members.

In-service training is provided on an on-going basis. Faculty need to be kept abreast of trends in technology and update teaching strategies. By providing the faculty with current information and being receptive to their needs the overall program is enhanced.

The Student Population

Before concluding this section on the characteristics of a quality mainstreamed program, one must examine the student population. One can establish a program of excellence, but this alone will not insure the success of it.

Two factors play an important part in this endeavor: the hearing population and the hearing-impaired population. The hearing student body must be able to interact comfortably with this disability group so they can become incorporated in classroom activities and extracurricular events. They must grow to focus on the "abilities" of the "disability" thus enabling the deaf individual access into sports, student government associations, clubs and social functions.

The hearing-impaired population must first be large enough in nature to provide a diverse group within their own subculture. Second, they must be students who can learn to be comfortable in their hearing environment so they can participate full in their college experience. Finally, they must be able to accept their disability and want to receive training to learn strategies which will enable them to function freely and independently in today's society.

Conclusion

Hearing-impaired students can be successfully mainstreamed into small, rural junior colleges. The geographic location coupled with the student body and trained profe sionals can afford the student an environment which fosters success. By utilizing community resources and personnel, and developing a two way channel of communication between the program and area businesses the students lives are enhanced.

When establishing a program of this nature one must be willing to invest in the education and the growth of the total individual. Programs which focus solely on the educational training fall short of enabling the deaf individual to reach his full capacity. By emphasizing independent living skills and employability skills these individuals can make the transition into today's society more smoothly.

It is a known fact that education parallels employment possibilities for all individuals. The positive effect of post-secondary training on the professional lives of deaf adults is also indisputable. (Welsh & Walker, 1988.)

> Deaf adults with degrees fare much better in the work force than do high school graduates in a number of ways. First their employment rates are substantially

> lower...those with sub-Bachelor degrees reduce their rate by more than 60 percent, and holders of Bachelors degrees reduce their rate by nearly 90 percent...Second their socioeconomic status is affected... and third they earn significantly higher wages over the course of a lifetime. Sub-Bachelor graduates increase their weekly wages by 47 percent over those of high school graduates; Bachelor degree recipients increase theirs by a dramatic 116 percent. (pp. 19-20.)

In order to prepare these students for the world of work quality programs must be established, the hearing population must be made aware of their abilities and training, and the hearing-impaired individual must become aware of his rights and responsibilities in securing training and employment. By providing comprehensive programs of this nature, the terms "underemployed" and "unemployed" will be used less frequently when identifying the hearing-impaired population.

REFERENCES

DeCarr, J.J., Stuckless, E.R., et.al., "A Framework for Considering Educational and Non-educational Influences on the Attainments of Deaf Persons", American Annals of the Deaf (July. 1985, vol.130, No. 3, pp. 206-211)

Jacobs, Leo M., A Deaf Adult Speaks Out., Washington, D.C. Gallaudet College Press, 1980, p. 103-104

Martin, Davis S., "Directions for Postsecondary Education of Hearing-Impaired Persons." Journal of the American Deafness and Rehabilitation Association. Oct. 1988, pp. 36-40.

Opton, Kathryn, "Dimensions of Mainstreaming:, American Annals of the Deaf, Oct. 1986, pp. 327-329.

Rawlings, Brenda and Karchmer, Michael (ed.), College and Career Programs for Deaf Students", Washington, D.C.; Gallaudet University Press, 1988.

Schein, Jerome D. and Marcus Delk, The Deaf Population of the United States, Silver Spring, Md., National Association of the Deaf, 1974.

Stuckless, Ross (ed.), Principles Basic to the Establishment and Operation of Postsecondary Programs for Deaf Students, Washington, D.C., CEASD, 1973

Vernon, McCay, "Potential Achievement and Rehabilitation in the Deaf Population". The Deaf American, (July, 1979) pp. 258-261.

Welsh, William and Walter, Gerard, "The Effect of Postsecondary Education on the Occupational Attainments of Deaf Adults". Journal of the American Deafness and Rehabilitation Association. July, 1988; pp. 14-22.

Louis Schwartz, Ed.D.
Professor of Special Education
Dept of Special Education,
College of Education
Florida State University
Tallahassee, Fl. 32306

Rhea Schwartz, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Department of Elementary
and Early Childhood Education
College of Education
Florida A & M University
Tallahassee, Fla. 32307

INDIVIDUALIZING INSTFUCTION FOR IN-SERVICE TEACHERS AT THE OUTREACH CENTERS OF TWO UNIVERSITIES

He pulls down the driveway every Thursday afternoon and she pulls down right after him. Their CB antennas waddle in the wind as she follows him to the Interstate. They wave goodby, throw kisses to each other and proceed to the entrances to the highway. He turns onto the west-bound traffic on his way to Panama City, Florida, a beach resort/military community. She turns to the east, heading for Madison, Florida, now a sleepy little town, but, formerly, the tung oil capital of the South. The population of Panama City waxes and wanes with the seasons, attracting many snow birds from the North to the "Miracle Mile" on the Gulf of Mexico. Madison, on the other hand, as the County seat, represents scattered, incorporated, poor and sparsely populated towns in this north Florida Panhandle region.

This married couple of special educational professionals are both employed at two different state universities in the same medium sized city. Besides their campus instructional roles, they both have contractual obligations teaching in the surrounding rural areas of this panhandle region of Florida. Although traveling in opposite directions, on sometimes different days, the courses they teach are often the same. These off-campus classes are in State required certification areas, i.e., general survey of special education, gifted, mentally handicapped, learning disabilities, and emotionally handicapped.

Both instructors are committed to individualizing instruction. The varied backgrounds and experiences of in-service teachers in rural America provide these two instructors with the unusual opportunities for actually demonstrating this historic teaching strategy in Special Education through the classes they teach.

This presentation will actually model the interactive individualized instructional strategies used in the off-campus courses. Utilizing basic techniques of needs assessment, task analysis, and curriculum design, the two instructors will develop a unit of instruction to meet the educational needs of the audience. This will demonstrate that "individualizing instruction" for teachers of exceptional students can be transferred and implemented in their very own classrooms.

This "Mom and Pop" team will demonstrate that the old fashioned concepts and practices of individualizing instruction are alive and well in rural outreach centers of two urban universities. A discussion will ensue that will identify and operationalize the intrinsic elements within the construct of the individualization of instruction. This will show how individualizing the instruction of teachers expedites that of their students.

Everyone wants to be an effective teacher. Everyone wants to make sure that their children are learning what they are teaching. However, how can we make sure that our teaching is producing their learning; and that, we are, in fact, effective teachers?

Since the time of organized educational facilities, this question has been raised, prodded, discussed, analyzed, argued, and researched. Since the time of educational reporting, philosophical essays have bombarded the instructional market place. Research of the most effective teaching methods, materials, activities, environments, and evaluation mechanisms have filled our professional and lay publications. And, yet, the answer remains elusive. The profession cannot agree upon a list of elements that would answer the erstwhile question - what are the elements of effective instruction?

Legally, education is a state and local responsibility. Therefore, the burden for producing effective instruction has fallen upon the teacher. And, unfortunately, with this overwhelming task has come the blame - the blame for the failure of the child to learn-ergo: ineffective instruction. The proof? - the increasingly poor scores on pupil minimum competency tests, the lowered SAT and ACT scores for prospective college students, the growing abhorrent rates of youth not graduating from our public schools, the increasing number of children in special educational programs for handicapped, and the growing demands for teacher competency tests throughout the country. These bandwagons become heavier and heavier, filled with

concerned parents, tax payers, legislators, and litigants, all lobbying for the one thing they truly believe will result in more effective instruction for our nation's children and youth. And, now, add the continued pressures of state mandated curricula, skill sequences, and/or tasks that must be effectively produced in our school age population by you, the teacher or else ....

However, it is questionable whether these harsh attack measures do improve the educational climate. Or, on the other hand, will it actually verify and establish the blame we lay periodically at the feet of the children, the teachers, the parents, the teacher/educators, and/or, in turn, the society in which we live.

What are the proven justifications for any of these curricula, skill sequences, and/or tasks that you are to implement in your classroom? Educational research traditionally has compared one curriculum, one methodology, one strategy, one environment, one material, up against another, in order to prove its worth. This research is always geared to the particular bias of the author, the publisher, or whatever the promulgator of that element of instruction believes in at that point of time. Therefore, we, as the implementors ofinstruction are, in effect, carrying out the findings of the best salesperson of educational instruction - whomever it might be.

In looking at research intelligently, there are two positive findings that are rarely adhered to:

1) Teachers teach the way they were taught.
2) Teachers successfully teach the instruction that they believe in.

Now, let us expand these two truisms. You are all different and bring to the teaching/learning experience an humongous divergence of interests, experiences, styles, beliefs, and, yes, preparation and training for the task before you. Similarly, the children in front of you also display these same differences that in many cases cannot be met under the current system of mandated education - regardless of whatever the type. Just as there are varieties of teachers and learners, there must be varieties of instructional formats and designs available to meet the desired outcome of effective instruction for each child and his/her teacher.

The instructional market place must resemble a shoe store.

How many customers of shoes are there?
Infants,girls, boys, women, men.

How many styles of shoes are there?
Dressy, casual, indoor, outdoor, etc.

How many sizes in lengths are there?
Probably from infant's 1 to men's 14+.

How many different width sizes are there?
Probable from AAA to EEE.

It seems to us, that if a shoe store can cater to the eccentricities of each individual wearer, the schools can at least attempt to individualize each student's instruction. Given a manifest display of various instructional materials, methodologies, environments, and evaluations - of which we lack none -the effective teacher would pick and choose those components that best match the learning needs of that particular child while utilizing his/her unique teaching mode.

Sounds impossible? After all, if the institutions of higher learning have failed to teach you one successful mode of instruction, how can they be expected to prepare you to be an "eclectic matcher" of appropriate instruction for any one child?

It, therefore, seems to this couple of educators that our frame of reference in teacher education also might use some overhauling, as they, too are guilty of:

1) Teaching the way in which they were taught.
2) Teaching the instruction they believe in.

Are we on the horns of a dilemma? Do we need a revelation and/or a revolution in our educational institutions in order to have effective instruction for both the children and their teachers? Or, do we need a powerful politician to say, "Do it!"

This leads us to the problem of what do you do, teacher, on Monday morning to make your teaching more effective. We cannot impose the doctrine of individualizing instruction upon you, since you, thanks to our preparation programs, never experienced it. We cannot impose the eclectic method upon you, since you have probably been trained in a singular curriculum with its concomitant methodology. But, we can ask you to

look at yourself, recognize your differences, your strengths, and the unique qualifications that you bring to the teaching/learning arena. The next step, in logical order, is to look at the class in front of you. Magic! They are not a class of children; they are not one, thirty; they are, rather, thirty, ones -- each an individual within him/herself, as different among themselves as you are from the teacher down the hall. And, yet, just as you ar expected to expound the same instruction as that teacher down the hall, these thirty youngsters, so different among themselves, are expected to learn as one. That is asking the impossible. That is asking for failure - the very failure that we are seeing in the schools today.

However, as you begin differentiating the learning characteristics and levels each child as an individual, their peculiar needs and the most desirable mode of instruction for that child will emerge. Then, you potpourri of instructional tools will serve as a buffet from which you can both choose the match for the most satisfying educational meal for all.

You have now learned the first lesson in individualizing instruction for both yourself and for each of the thirty learners for whom you are responsible. Because, if the child does well, then you, the teacher, have implemented effective instruction.

Rhea Schwartz, Ph. D.
Associate Professor
Department of Elementary
and Early Childhood Education
College of Education
Florida A & M University
Tallahassee, Florida 32307

A TEACHER DESIGNED RURAL-REGIONAL SYMPOSIUM

ON GIFTED EDUCATION

They say, "Education is a life-long process."
They say, "You learn from experience."
They say, "School is never over."

And here you sit, with your bright, new degree in education and a smashing new job teaching, of all things, gifted children. Now, you know, that professor never even mentioned the word, "gifted." Weren't you taught that all children learn basically alike: the way Susie on page 77 of the text learns? And, therefore, weren't you taught to teach the way the Teacher's Edition told you to teach, so that everyone would learn all the basic skills? Well, now you know that somebody missed the boat because:

1) Your new job isn't anywhere near the city where the university was; and
2) The kids are different; they're called "gifted."

See, you went home, back to the small rural community where you were born and reared. (My rural teachers did teach me something - you rear children; you raise chickens; but, you grow corn.) In fact, many of the teachers in your old school are still there in that new school where they now call you, "Miss Jones," but expect you to call them by their first names - still impossible. So, besides being a first year teacher, you are also a first year teacher of gifted children - a position for which you were not prepared.

Or, maybe, you're that super third grade teacher who managed to teach all the children so well that they all passed the State's third grade test of basic skills. Your reward for being that super teacher in a district where everyone knows everyone and his/her capabilities, was to be "chosen" to teach the new class for the gifted.

Now, you and I know that once a good teacher, always a good teacher. So it was with little trepidation

that you entered the world of gifted children with their unique learning and behavioral characteristics. Needless to say, you were totally unprepared for the onslaught of intellectual curiosity and the many protagonistic confrontations on all levels of subject matter. The great feeling of intellectual stimulation that you felt was, unfortunately, overlaid with a blanket of inferiority as to <u>how</u> and <u>what</u> to teach these knowledge-seeking kids all day long. You were floundering in an unexplored area - no one was immediately available with any of the answers to your pondering brain. And then you remembered what <u>they</u> say:

"Education is a life-long process."
"You learn from experience."
"School is never over."

Fortunately your state, as did Florida, anticipated this problem by stipulating the teaching competencies necessary for teachers of the gifted. Colleges and universities, like Florida A & M University, also geared up for this projected need and began offering the appropriate courses to meet the state regulations for teacher certification. Your district, as did Madison County School, made arrangements for off- campus courses to be taught at a local school following the day's operation. Needless to say, both the university instructor and the teacher-students from near and neighboring counties arrive tired and weary after a day's work. They are far from enthusiastic at the thought of listening to the drone of a college professor lecturing from stale notes transposed from a text whose author never heard of rural education and the unique needs of the variety of teachers poised before the lectern. To reiterate the wise words of Doris Helge - any curriculum "brought" to a rural area must be rural in nature and reflect the unique needs of rural teachers, students, and parents.

Many years ago, this city-bred instructor realized that the teacher who comes to the off-campus courses comes to add to his/her professional forte. These teachers have been fully prepared in an area of teaching. However, due to whatever the circumstances, these teachers find themselves in a classroom different from the one they had envisioned or had been in. They now are teachers of the gifted. The process of education necessary for this group is as different from pre-service as it is from the typical in-service education that we all have been familiar with. In many cases, the same professor who taught the course on campus, comes out to "give it to you again" off campus. He/she was not

successful either time. These courses were, indeed, dismal affairs, and affronts to the intelligence of rural teachers.

Here in Madison, as in other rural areas of north Florida, I have been able to do things differently. Following the philosophy that the teachers seated before me represent the very myriad of individual differences and unique characteristics and experiences that their students do, let's make those differences meaningful. Using the techniques of needs assessment, task analysis, individual research, and seminar-type interactions, (initially presented at an ACRES conference four years ago as "The Respond/Read/Replicate/Report System) the teachers' needs, interests, experiences, and expectations are all molded into a course outline that reflects those teachers' prospective.

Through the years of using this System, no course ever is the same. The System, itself, has allowed for the maturity of both the instructor and the teacher-students. Presented in Rural Special Education Quarterly as an example of "A rural expert system" a former group of Madison County teachers used the University-sponsored off-campus course to design, develop, and implement a local association of parents of gifted children. The unique aspects of this instructional delivery system allows for the collaborative efforts of both the university and the educational community officials. This sponsorship was directly related to the objectives of the course, "Guidance and Counseling of Gifted Children and Their Parents." After all, what better way to find out the unique cognitive and affective differences of gifted children than to ask their parents? And, what, truly, do parents of gifted children need more than a forum for the discussion of their needs and those of their children? This forum acts as a support system for both the parent and the child. This is currently a viable organization; in fact, this year's third wave of teachers of the gifted participated in a recent meeting.

So, what's next? A new group of students - all teachers, all new to the gifted, all "chosen." They represent the second wave of rural teachers from north Florida needing extra education in the field of the gifted. They are enrolled in the first of three State mandated certification courses:

1) Nature and Needs of the Gifted
2) Eduational Procedures for the Gifted
3) Guidance and Counseling for the Gifted and Their Parents.

Interestingly enough, the majority of teacher-students in this group were employed in the middle and high schools of their respective districts. For those of us who previously operated totally in the world of little children, this was, indeed, a new experience. The frustrations of our first year high school math teacher in her first education course sent wavelets of shock through the elementary contingency. Wide eyed amazement was the rule when the middle school antics were described. However, these were always followed by an account of the far-reaching research accomplishments of a particular student (whom everyone knew) and/or the emotional high provoked through a brain-storming session. Yes, gifted children do grow up. And, yes, they are still gifted - they do not lose their giftedness.

This presentation today, hopefully, will reflect the maturity of this "rural expert system" in an attempt to depict the planning, development, and implementation of a class related goal. The following "chosen" teachers of the gifted will represent the second wave of students who have participated in the off-campus courses described. They will tell you what the group decided they most needed to learn, how they would go about devising strategies to meet their learning objectives, and how they would know when they had attained the knowledge they set out to learn. They will tell you how they as the "second wave" of new teachers of the gifted felt in terms of their insecurity in meeting with this undefined population. They will tell you their solution to the dilemma of what and how to teach the gifted. And they will tell you how they organized to arrive at the answer. It was complex and complicated, as were and are the participants in this activity. They will tell you how they organized this north Florida educational area into a regional symposium for teachers and others interested in the education of the gifted. They will tell you how they organized to identify and invite the "experts." They will tell you how these experts were utilized in the most appropriate manner including the State consultant in gifted education, the regional and local exceptional education supervisors, and other mentor-type teachers of the gifted. They will probably also tell you where, how, and when this conference was held, what were some of the limitations, and, certainly, what the refreshments were.

Now, let me introduce the following "chosen" teachers of gifted children who represent the second wave of teacher-students described above:

James Mc Leod, 5th and 6th grade language arts teacher of the gifted, Madison Middle School, Madison, Fla.

Estelle Osborne, K - 4th, General Academic Enrichment Teacher, Madison Primary School, Madison, Fla.

Dianne Phillips, 9th - 12th grade teacher of the gifted, Madison County High School, Madison, Fla.

Sandra Warner, 3rd and 4th grade teacher of the gifted, Central Hamilton County Elementary, Jasper, Fla.

Sandra Silver
Principal
Paul Bunyan Elementary School
Bemidji, MN

THE NORTHERN COALITION TEACHER CENTER

The Northern Coalition for Education, established in 1985, is a voluntary organization comprised of teachers, principals, superintendents, school board members and other interested personnel from 57 school districts in the northwest region of Minnesota. The purpose of the coalition is to establish harmonious working relationships among all elements of the educational community and to encourage positive interaction to insure better education between the schools and the people they serve. The goals of the Coalition are to:

* provide an open forum for the discussion of public matters relating to education;
* support the networking of joint education and research based information through inservice training and other district programs;
* provide correct information to school districts; and,
* lobby together in the legislative process for education issues.

It is within this cooperative atmosphere of discussion and consensus that trust and harmony have developed among the member school districts. The members of the coalition have established a common ground and displayed the ability to work together to promote high quality education in the classroom and better communication in the school and community.

Minnesota Session Laws 1987, Chapter 398, Article 8 Sections 42, 43, and 44, provided funding for five demonstration sites for teacher centers throughout the State of Minnesota. According to the law, the functions of the teacher center are to:

* assist teachers;
* diagnose learning needs;
* experiment with the use of multiple instructional approaches;
* assess pupil outcomes;
* assess staff development needs and plans;

- develop and produce curricula and curricular materials designed to meet the needs of pupils being served;
- provide programs for teachers to meet the special needs of pupils;
- provide programs to familiarize teachers with developments in curriculum formulation and educational research;
- facilitate sharing of resources, ideas, methods, and approaches directly related to classroom instruction;
- improve teachers' familiarity with current teaching materials and products for use in the classroom; and,
- provide in-service programs.

Because many issues on the Coalition agenda are embodied in the goals of the teacher center, it was decided that a grant should be submitted. All schools in the Northern Coalition were invited to participate in the Teacher Center grant proposal. Twenty four schools and Bemidji State University joined together in the grant proposal that was submitted in November of 1987. It was decided that once the grant was awarded, additional schools could become members by having the school board and the teachers bargaining unit sign letters of application and submit them to the Teacher Center.

The State of Minnesota awarded three grants in January of 1988. The Northern Coalition Teacher Center was funded for $65,000 through June 30, 1989. Additional funding sources including grant monies and membership fees are being explored.

The teacher center provides services to schools, families and surrounding communities. It serves as a networking agency that links educators and resources for the purpose of improving the quality of the teaching and learning process. It's major goals are to:

- improve the quality of the teaching/learning process;
- assess staff development needs and plans;
- assist educators with self-identified concerns;
- inform educators of developments in educational research including how research can be used to improve teaching skills, diagnose learning needs, and facilitate the use of multiple instructional approaches;
- provide assistance for revising and building curriculum at the local district level;

* collect, disseminate, and promote sharing of resources, ideas, methods, and approaches related to classroom instruction and decrease unnecessary duplication of services;
* improve communication and increase awareness of educational needs between educators, administrators, board members, and the community;
* enhance professional growth and development;
* provide morale-building support activities for educators;
* provide the opportunity for renewal experiences; and
* provide inservice experiences at the Teacher Center and at local school district sites.

A policy board comprised of a majority of teachers with representatives from administration, school boards, business and industry, parents and post secondary education has been established to act as the decision making body for the teacher center. The board is comprised of: one teacher representative per 75 teachers with a minimum of one teacher per school district; one elementary school principal for every 500 teachers; one secondary school principal for every 500 teachers; one central office administrator for every 500 teachers; one school board member for every 500 teachers; one representative from business and labor for every 500 teachers; one parent representative for every 500 teachers; and one representative from post-secondary education for every 500 teacher for a 40 member board. A nine member Executive Board comprised of a President, Vice President, Secretary, Treasurer, and five directors was selected. The Executive Board is comprised five teachers, one school board member, one parent and one superintendent.

The Policy Board assures that sound fiscal policies are practiced and designates a fiscal agent to expend the funds needed to accomplish the purposes of the teacher center. The policy board has hired a Coordinator for the Teacher Center. The Teacher Center Coordinator has offices in two locations Bemidji and Thief River Falls which are approximately ninety miles apart.

The Policy Board established the following standing committees:

* Needs Assessment
* Mentorship Program
* Curriculum Development Research
* Inservice/Staff Development
* Public Relations
* Resource Center

* Teacher Exchange
* School Climate

The goals of the needs assessment committee are to: gather data; provide orientation to all educators concerning what a Teacher Center is; and to compile a written needs assessment. To date, needs assessments have been conducted throughout the region. The teacher center coordinator made presentations to local school boards, professional associations, and individual school building staff concerning the Teacher Center. A needs assessment was distributed at all presentations. The items most teachers expressed an interest in were; grade level meetings, teacher exchanges, and newsletters.

The mentorship program committee established three goals: to establish a mentoring program in school districts; to provide mentordhip experiences for new/probationary teachers; and to develop a mentorship handbook. A five day summer institute was designed to train mentors selected by five school districts. Twenty-six mentors were trained in this program. Each mentor was assigned a mentee for the coming year. On going training is taking place.

The goals of the curriculum development research committee are: to facilitate the enhancement of existing curriculum; to develop a resource library of area curriculums in northern Minnesota; and to develop a people resource list of experts in curricular areas. This committee also plans to update teachers on curriculum issues being discussed at the state level and commercially available curriculum programs. It hopes to coordinate the sharing of curriculum across the 27 member school districts.

The inservice/staff development committee decided to: communicate inservice and staff development options available through the Teacher Center Newsletter; develop inservice and consulting opportunities for teachers; and to facilitate the needs of member schools as determined by a needs assessment. The committee suggested that each district have a staff development committee to help teachers determine their staff development needs. They also felt that the committee should explore how smaller and larger districts can cooperate on staff development.

The public relations committee saw their role as one of providing a variety of information to a several groups of peoples people. The felt that all educators must be informed of the existence of the teachers center. The felt that information must be made available to all educators in the Northwest Educational Cooperative Service Unit (ECSU)

region served by the teacher center. The also wish to inform and make information available to the general public as to the role of the teacher center. To accomplish these goals, they are devising handouts and exploring additional funding resources. They also wish to provide public recognition for the work done by teachers, administrators and school boards.

The resource center will provide coordination and pooling of physical resources in all the educational agencies in this area. It will screen materials and see that teacher requests are honored. One or two physical sites as well as a mobile unit will be established to distribute materials and programs to area locations. Opportunities for personal and professional growth will be provided by the resource center. Mini sessions on child abuse and idea exchanges are but a few of the potential programs discussed.

The teacher exchange committee discussed the possibility of providing teacher exchanges for a day, week, or month. They also discussed classroom visitations, grade level support groups, summer institutes, and video evaluations. To make these activities meaningful, the teacher exchange committee is conducting a needs assessment to determine the teaching techniques and methods in which members schools desire assistance. They are in the process of identifying exemplary teachers, programs, and departments that meet the needs of teachers in current techniques and methodologies. They are also developing a method to facilitate visits for teachers to visit exemplary teachers and programs.

On request, the school climate committee will provide a collection of tools that the individual school district can use to assess their school climate. They are developing a training/selection process to assemble an assessment team. They are also devloping an agenda to promote effective communication including how to: work out problems in relationships; use meet and confer; promote positive attitudes toward learning; provide training in self-esteem, encouraging parental involvement, and building morale. They are also developing a collection of programs that allow groups to recognize the work of individuals.

Currently, the Teacher Center is offering a variety of programs including workshops on Assertive Discipline, TESA, Cooperative Learning, Classroom Management, Beginning Appleworks, and Grade Master. They are in the process of arranging newtworking meeting including grade level meetings and subject area meetings. A mini-grant program is being established. Teachers may apply for enabling grants to

support classroom projects, field trips, and enrichment programs. Grants may be provided for: in-house release time to facilitate curriculum writing; exemplary visitations (teacher exchange); attendance at professional conferences; lyceum offerings; and Artist-in-Residence programs. Additional programs will be designed based on continuing needs assessment and requests from members schools and teachers.

Sandra Silver
Principal
Paul Bunyan Elementary School
Bemidji, MN

Inservice Education for Special Education Teachers in Rural Areas

The isolation of special education teachers in rural areas restricts the delivery of effective inservice programs. For special education teachers to remain abreast of current developments, alternative types of inservice programs must be explored. This paper will: (1) discuss the importance of inservice education; (2) explore the difficulties associated with inservice education in rural areas along with possible remedies; (3) examine various inservice approaches along with their inherent difficulties; and, (4) present a comprehensive inservice education model based on the theories of adult development and planned change.

Because inservice education has been in existence since the 1800's, a vast body of literature exists regarding this topic. The majority of this work reviews the literature, gives opinions, and describes existing programs. What research does exist is usually done locally, lacks external validity and is often not disseminated (Hutson, 1981). The lack of hard research may result from the complex nature of inservice education.

Hutson (1981) views the current state of inservice practice as deplorable. The term itself and the meager body of hard research present major obstacles in providing effective inservice education. A broad scheme and clear concept of inservice education with appropriate policies, committment and fixed responsibility has never existed (Dillon-Peterson, 1981). Without a clear concept of the nature and function of inservice education, it is not surprising that inservice education is viewed negatively by many educators. If inservice is to be effective, a coherent theory and systematic framework are essential. Thus, an overview of the basic principles and assumptions underlying inservice education will be delineated. Planned change and androgogy, two theories that relate to quality inservice education, will also be described.

Basic Principles Underlying Inservice Education

Inservice education is an integral part of teacher education. Inservice enables professional growth by providing teachers with quality training that: creates an awareness of new knowledge, techniques, and technology (Brandt & Olson, 1980); develops skills; and provides a means for teachers to exchange ideas (Peters, 1975). Inservice also provides a means for remediating the skills of teachers who either lack adequate pre-service training or who have been away from formalized training for an extended period of time (Rubin, 1971).

Sher (1978) believes that in rural areas the need to revitalize and upgrade the skills of teachers is intensified due to the difficulty obtaining qualified staff and the vast difference between the theory taught in teacher training programs and the application of these theories to the rural classroom. For special education, inservice training is critical as over one-third of the teachers serving handicapped students in rural areas have no special education training and lack proper certification (Rehmann & Latini, 1979).

Assumptions

Inservice education is based on a variety of assumptions. For the purposes of this paper, 15 assumptions have been identified as essential to an effective inservice program.

* All personnel to stay current and effective must be involved in inservice education.
* Staff can and will grow beyond the minimum competencies expected of initial employees.
* People learn best the things perceived as meaningful, purposeful, and satisfying.
* Adults learn best when they feel they have control over the situation and a supportive emotional climate free from fear of failure is provided.
* Learning experiences are viewed as appropriate or not based on the individual's internal frame of reference.
* Educators differ in their competencies, readiness and approach to learning.

* People can and will learn on the job. However, feedback is necessary to aid in using the learning effectively.

* Intrinsic satisfaction will help teachers grow.

* Learning does not satisfy all needs.

* People must learn for long term survival but can cope, resist or endure in the short run.

* People work individually or as members of a group on problems they view as significant.

* Change in educational practice is the result of systematic, long range, staff development.

* Professional growth requires committment.

* Schools need to provide resources and leadership for inservice education.

* Inservice education should be based on reseach, theory and best practices models.

Inservice education is essential if our schools and educational personnel are to remain effective in a changing society. Teachers, like students, differ in many ways including initial training, developmental level, frame of reference, and learning style. In order to meet the needs of all educators, inservice programs must provide a range of opportunities.

Theories Related to Inservice Education

The need for a conceptual and theoretical framework for inservice education is apparent. Two theories, planned change and andragogy, emerge as relevant to the inservice endeavor.

Planned change. Patel (1968) asserts that inservice education is a change process based on the following assumptions: education is a life-long process; preservice education is inadequate for a lifelong teaching career; inservice improves the quality of education; and change is imperative to improve teacher competencies. As Harris and Bessent (1969) believe, the intent of inservice education is to change instructional practices by changing people. Because inservice education is an instrument for organizational change, if the principles of planned change

were used, inservice education would become part of the districts standard operating procedures.

Planned change is a process by which change is created, implemented, evaluated, maintained, and resisted. Planned change may be defined as a "conscious, deliberate and collaborative effort to improve the operations of a human system" (Bennis, Benne, Chin, & Corey, 1976, p. 4). For the change process to "produce a maximum effect... the client system must feel it, rather than a change agent, has taken responsibility for the first step" (Lippitt, Watson, & Westley, 1958, p. 75). This is important because "people resist change even of a kind they basically agree with, if they are not significantly involved in the planning" (Bennis et al., p. 227).

Bennis et al. (1976) delineate five steps in the planned change process: establishing a defined set of goals; delineating alternatives for attaining the goals; evaluating each plan of action; selecting the alternative that most nearly optimizes the set of goals; and assessing the action after it has been implemented. The process of learning and changing should be: experimental; collaborative; oriented toward situational requirements; educational for all involved; respectful of personal and group uniqueness; self evaluative; self correcting; and self-renewing. Inservice education is therefore a voluntary, cooperative, relevant, well-planned, developmental process whose effectiveness is evaluated to ensure that the desired change occurs.

Androgogy. Knowles (1973) developed a theory of adult education based on the principles of adult development. Knowles believes that as a person matures his/her self-concept moves from dependency to self-direction. The person gains a reservoir of experiences to which new experiences are related. At this stage, adults are motivated to learn as they experience the "need". Adult education must be an experience based, self-directing process that accounts for individual differences and allows the person to apply tomorrow what he/she has learned today.

The androgogical model provides procedures and resources to help learners acquire information and skills. Knowles (1973, p. 104) provides seven elements that are relevant for inservice education. These are: "1.) establishing a climate that is conducive to learning; 2.) creating a mechanism for mutual planning; 3.) diagnosing the needs for learning; 4.) formulating program objectives... which will satisfy these needs; 5.) designing a pattern of learning experiences; 6.) conducting these learning

experiences with suitable techniques and materials; and 7.) evaluating the learning outcome and rediagnosing the need."

The theories of planned change and andragogy complement each other. Change arises out of a need perceived by the teacher. Teacher involvement, a supportive environment and program evaluation are crucial components of the change/learning process. This is a continual process with the evaluation component serving as the catalyst for re-examining needs and re-initiating the change/learning process. Together these theories lay the foundation on which to be a conceptual and theoretical framework for inservice education.

Difficulties Providing Inservice Education in Rural Areas

The literature reveals several major difficulties associated with providing inservice education in rural areas. Funding continues to be a major problem. With declining enrollments and the faith in the public's educational system waning, school district budgets are under close scrutiny and severe constraints. In the allocation of resources, inservice education does poorly. Moreover, inservice programs are often more expensive in rural areas due to the low number of teachers and the expense of bringing experts to remote areas (Burdin & Poliakoff, 1973).

Inservice programs are often not seen as relevant to educators' needs. This occurs because these programs are often devised with little or no input from the teachers they are designed to serve.

The main incentive for participation in inservice programs is certification renewal credit. College credit which is usually necessary for pay increases is generally offered only when the program is sponsered by a university. Even when college credit is available, the cost may be prohibitive.

Scheduling is a major difficulty in providing inservice programs. Burdin and Poliakoff (1973) assert that teachers are most receptive to new ideas during the school day. This requires release time for teachers. Schools may be unwilling to provide this release time because of the need to hire substitute teachers which adds to the cost and may decrease the quality of the education that the students' obtain in the teacher's absence.

Distance, road and weather conditions compound the scheduling problems. With but a single special education teacher in a district, bringing the programs to the teachers

may be difficult. Providing travel reimbursement, car pool routes, and refreshments could help alleviate these difficulties.

Because of the problems mentioned above, teachers are often not motivated to attend inservice programs. It is therefore essential to base programs on teachers' perceived needs and provide incentives for participation. It is also essential to eliminate feelings of threat that may be experienced by participants who feel that their job may be threatened should they disagree with ideas presented or be unable to implement these ideas in their classrooms.

Finally, follow up would allow inservice presenters and partcipants to evaluate the program's effectiveness and applicability. This information would then aid in the planning of future inservice endeavors.

A Comprehensive Inservice Model

Inservice education is part of a lifelong learning continuum. It is a process of growth and development aimed at producing change in the individual teacher so that his/her effectiveness in the classroom will be increased. For inservice to be effective, a variety of offerings using different techniques must continually be made available to all educators. No inservice offering is able to meet the needs of all teachers. Thus a comprehensive inservice model designed to address the specific needs of the isolated rural special education teacher has been devised (see Figure 1).

The model has nine major components. These are:

- assess needs by identifying needed information, felt needs and interests;
- formulate goals by translating needs into concerns, prioritizing the concerns, and formulating goals and objectives;
- determine financial, material and human resources;
- develop optimal delivery systems by identifying opportunities and learning styles;
- determine incentives by developing a positive physical and emotional climate and arranging for motivators such as college credit, release time and stipends;
- develop programs including intervention strategies and timetables;
- implement the program;

* evaluate the program by collecting and analyzing formative and summative data; and
* restructure by feeding information back to individuals and the system and recycling the process.

The model is both circular and cyclical. It is flexible to meet the diverse needs of the rural special education teacher.

The model provides a framework with the specifics delineated according to situational demands. Each component is necessary for the development of a comprehensive inservice model. Without the designated components, the effectiveness of the inservice program will be diminished.

Inservice Approaches

Approaches for providing inservice education can be classified into six major categories; college and university programs, state and regional programs, school based programs, teacher center programs, teacher exchanges, and consultant programs. Each of these categories will be explored and evaluated in terms of the difficulties associated with and adherence to the proposed in-service model.

College and university programs. Traditionally, inservice education has been provided at the college or university setting by professors who are far removed from the rural school experience. Because school districts and teacher preparation institutes have failed to develop collaborative relationships for the comprehensive planning of inservice education (Edelfelt & Johnson, 1975) lack of relevance is a major problem. While extension courses attempt to alleviate distance problems, the further the university from the community the more infrequent the provision of courses and the more limited the topics addressed. Many of these courses are offered after school which, coupled with the distance factor, often makes it impossible for teachers to take advantage of the offerings. Compacted weekend, Saturday, and mini courses offered during school vacations can help alleviate these problems. Satellite teacher training sites staffed by local personnel and teacher training interns are also a possibility. However, local people may be difficult to recruit and the mutual planning and commitment required for the success of such an endeavor is often lacking on college campuses.

Correspondence courses and independent studies are other means by which the University attempts to meet the

needs of rural teachers. These programs allow for the individualization of instruction and are based on the needs of individuals. However distance from the university and lack of interaction with colleagues can hamper learning.

With the advances in technology, television, teleconferencing, interactive video and mobile classrooms are being used to provide college coursework in rural areas. With the continual improvements in technology and the experiences of those participating in this form of education, some of the problems associated with this mode of delivery are being overcome.

In terms of the proposed model, college and university programs are rarely based on local needs assessments. The goals and objectives meet state certification and university degree requirements. These courses do provide resources and college credit, but fail to alleviate many of the difficulties associated with inservice programs in rural areas. They also lack restructuring a key component for an effective inservice program.

State and regional programs. State sponsored conferences and special study institutes that focus on specified topics are other means of providing inservice programs to rural special educators. These programs bring together people from a variety of locales to discuss specific concerns. State funding is usually available for a designated number of people. These programs are conducted during the regular school day and take place in a congenial collegial atmosphere. Because the subsidies usually do not include the cost of substitute teachers, regional consultants rather than classroom teachers usually attend the workshops. The state designated topics may hold little relevance for the rural educators and there is usually no follow up. While regional programs help resolve the relevance issue, unless classroom teachers are able to attend, the efficacy of this model is questionable.

In terms of the suggested model, state and regional programs are often based on perceived rather than assessed needs. Adequate resources may be provided. Incentives exist. The setting usually provides a positive climate. And while evaluation does occur, the information is rarely related to participants.

School based programs. The current trend is to provide inservice programs within the public school setting. Unfortunately, many of these programs fail to meet the needs of the teachers they purport to serve. Edelfelt and Johnson (1975) view many of these efforts as weak haphazard programs that do not attempt to help teachers improve their

instructional skills or become more adept at planning and organizing curriculum. These programs are often a single presentation which may be ineffectual as well as threatening to some teachers.

In terms of the proposed model, these programs are often not based on assessed needs, Resources are limited. Little incentive is provided to teachers. Program evaluation is haphazard at best and restructuring fails to occur. While school based programs have the potential to incorporate all steps of the proposed inservice model, they have fallen short in the execution and have failed to provide an effective tool for providing inservice education to special education teachers in rural areas.

Teacher center programs. The mission of the teacher center is to provide inservice programs based on assessed needs. The focus is usually on hands on experience and practical application. The teacher center is usually staffed by teachers and provides a variety of programs in a non-threatening atmosphere in which teachers can meet and explore various methods and materials. Certification renewal credit is usually offered for teacher center programs. Unfortunately, the center is only as good as its leaders and many programs take place during the school day or immediately thereafter making attendance difficult. Even when a mobile van is available, the majority of the programs remain center based. The distance factor hampers teacher usage and the van may lack the resources available at the center.

In terms of the proposed model, programs are based on assessed needs, a variety of resources are available, alternative delivery systems may be employed, a conducive atmosphere is provided, certification renewal credit is available, and evaluation and restructuring do occur. Hence, teacher centers do adhere to the proferred inservice model.

Teacher exchanges. This approach is based on the philosophy that teachers learn through observation and modeling and that peer discussion provides an effective means of professional growth. Teachers may visit other classrooms to gain exposure to a variety of instructional methods and materials. Following a period of observation, the teachers discuss their perceptions of what was occuring in the classroom. Another variation of this model allows special education teachers to meet regionally on a regular basis. This provides a support system for the isolated professional. The teachers provide their own format, but generally focus on issues of common concern and help

generate solutions for actual problems encountered by their colleagues.

Advantages of teacher exchanges include low cost, a non-threatening atmosphere, a support system, and a chance to learn from each other. Obstacles include: difficulty establishing meeting times; a lack of expertise to solve problems; and the possibility of the sessions deteriorating into purely social exchanges.

In terms of the proposed model, teacher exchanges are informal and address current concerns rather than felt needs. The issues raised may be dealt with at the moment, but adequate follow up may be lacking. Resources are limited. Programs are rarely planned and implemented. Evaluation does not occur, hence the restructuring component lacks the needed information to recycle the process.

Consultant models. Consultants provide another means of providing inservice for rural special educators. The consultant can provide both formal and informal inservice programs. Formal inservice is generally provided by regional or school based workshops with an emphasis on active program on a regional or consortium basis. Informal inservice occurs through modeling, listening, clarifying and encouraging. Consultants can observe and analyze classroom performance as a means of effecting change.

Consultants can also train teachers to be their own resources. By opening communication channels, aiding teachers in creative problem solving, and becoming aware of available resources the teacher could become more self-sufficient in terms of professional development.

Advantages of the consultant model include: flexibility of scheduling; school based programs; individualization; a variety of services; and a non-threatening atmosphere. Difficulties exist due to: lack of trained personnel; misperception of the consultant role; and distrust that may arise if the consultant is viewed as an outsider. Despite the possible impediments, the advantages outweight the limitations and appear to make it a viable alternative for providing inservice to special education teachers in rural areas.

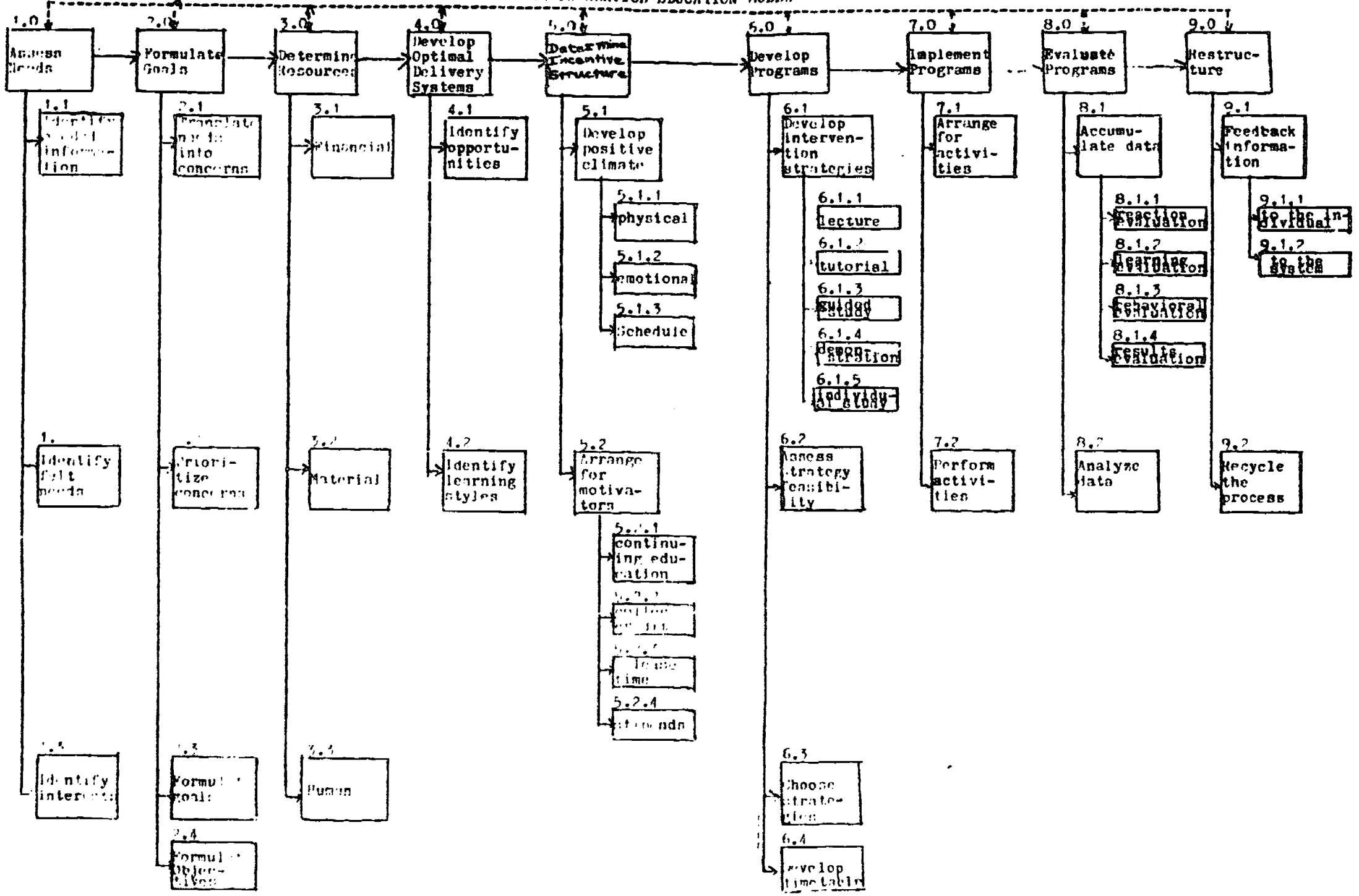
In terms of the suggested model, consultant models should be based on assessed needs with goals based on these needs. Consultant models provide an array of resources and delivery systems from which to choose. It is possible to develop a range of motivators for inservice programs. In addition, the consultant is able to evaluate the program,

feedback the information, and recycle the process. Thus, the consultant approach adheres to the inservice model presented.

Several of the approaches explored adhere or have the capability of adhering to the proposed inservice model. As in the model itself, the program chosen should be one that meets the needs of the individuals involved. As long as the comprehensive inservice model is adhered to in its entirety, an effective inservice program should be provided for rural special educators .

Figure 1

A COMPREHENSIVE IN-SERVICE EDUCATION MODEL



BEST COPY AVAILABLE

References

Bennis, W.G., Benne, K.D., Chin, R. & Corey, K.E. (1976). The planning of change. New York: Holt, Rhinehart & Winston.

Brandt, R. & Olson, N. (Eds.) (1980). Staff development/ organizational development. Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Burdin, J.L. & Poliakoff, L. (1973). Inservice education for rural school personnel. Washington D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 073 082).

Dillon-Peterson, B. (Ed.) (1981). Staff development/ organizational development. Alexandria: ASCD.

Edelfelt, R.A. & Johnson, M. (Eds.) (1975). Rethinking inservice education. Washington D.C.: National Education Addociation.

Harris, B.M. & Bessent, W. (1969). Inservice education: A guide for better practice. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Hutson, H.M. (1981). Inservice best practices: The learnings of general education. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 14, 1-10.

Knowles, M.S. (1973). The adult learner: A neglected species. Houston: Gulf Publishing Co.

Lippitt, R. Watson, J & Westley, B. (1958). Planned change. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World.

Patel, I.J. (Ed.) (1968). Reading in inservice education. India: Anand Press.

Peters, R.O. (1975). Affecting teacher awareness and attitudes: An inservice program strategy for rural areas. Washington D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 114 225).

Rehmann, A.M., & Latini, N.J. (Eds.) (1979). Leadership in the 80"s. Influencing through management. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Rubin, L.J. (Ed.) (1971). Improving inservice education: Proposals and procedures for change. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Sher, J.P. (1978). A proposal to end federal neglect to rural schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 60, 280-282.

Jo Anna Spruill
University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh
403 Nursing/Education Building
Oshkosh, WI 54901

Libby G. Cohen
University of Southern Maine
407 Bailey Hall
Gorham, Maine 04038

Linda Hawkins
P.O. Box 691
Mars Hill, Maine 04758

Cyrene Slegona
Box 5
S. Casco, Maine 04077

The Transition of Secondary Age Students in Maine from High School to the Community

The Transition of Secondary Age Students in Maine from High School to the Community

A review of recent literature on employment outcomes and independent living adjustment of special needs youth (Mithaug, Horiuchi, & Fanning 1985; Hasazi, Gordon, & Roe, 1985,; Hasazi, et al., 1985; Wehman, Kregel, & Seyfarth, 1985) suggests that improvements are needed in the provision of vocational training and transitional services to handicapped youth. These studies found a general condition of underemployment of special needs graduates or school leavers, low pay for those employed, and poor access to the usual job related fringe benefits. There were also indications of under-utilization of community services, which are needed for job finding by moderately to severely retarded school leavers. The authors of one study (Hasazi, Gordon, & Roe, 1985) suggested that certain experiences were more likely to predict successful employment outcomes. These included graduating from high school, participating in vocational education programs, and working during the summer and at part-time jobs during the school year.

Madeline Will (1984) has defined the term transition as an outcome oriented process and which includes a wide variety of services and experiences which will vary widely and will be unique to the individual.

A series of four research studies were conducted which examined how the transition process was being implemented in Maine. These studies were meant to complement each other and to produce results that could be synthesized into a broad statewide view of the transition process. Each of the four studies was descriptive in nature. These studies were: 1) a statewide survey of school districts which examined how schools were implementing the transition process; 2) a survey of transition practices in a rural and remote are of northern Maine; 3) an interview study of educators in three rural school districts in southern Maine; and, 4) a follow up study of special education school leavers in two of the rural districts. Our purpose in conducting these related studies, was to obtain an overview of practices relating to transition in order to identify needs and make recommendations for policy makers, teacher trainers, and practitioners.

Study 1: Statewide Survey of Secondary Transition Services

In order to examine statewide practices in the area of transition, a questionnaire was mailed to a random sample of educators in Maine which inquired about their general knowledge of transition practices and the steps their schools were taking to meet the transition needs of secondary age students with handicaps.

Before the mailing, the questionnaire was piloted with a small group of teachers. Thirty percent (30%) of the questionnaires were returned. The majority of the respondents were special education department chairpersons and teachers (46%), followed by guidance and vocational counselors (28%), and special education directors (12%).

Vocational Education Training

Ninety-eight percent (98%) of the respondents reported that secondary level special education students have access to regular vocational education programs. In terms of specific vocational areas, 74% of the respondents reported that students were mainstreamed into carpentry programs; food service, 62%; auto mechanics, 59%; child care programs, 49%; auto body repair, 43%; with lower percentages, 20% to 7%, enrolled in areas such as data processing, electronics, horticulture, masonry and plumbing.

Seventy-five percent (75%) of the respondents stated that secondary special needs students had access to special vocational education programs. Special career training included food services, 44%; carpentry, 34%; automotives, 29%; maintenance, 28%; health services, 23%; horticulture, 20%; retail occupations, 20%; and, general trades, 16%.

Fifty percent (50%) of those surveyed reported that there were community-based training programs available to secondary level special needs students in a limited range of programs. Programs were reported accessible at rates of 26% in food services to 5% in masonry.

It appears that many of the vocational training opportunities for special needs students are available through regular vocational education programs and that, overall, job training accessibility is aimed at traditional entry level positions. However, fifty percent (50%) of the respondents considered vocational training as the high school special education teachers' responsibility. Thus, it seems that although some vocational training is available to students with special needs in regular vocational settings, the responsibility for providing it falls to the special education teacher.

Carl Perkins Act

Several questions inquired about the respondents' knowledge of the Carl Perkins Act. About two-thirds of the respondents seemed to be unaware of the legal aspects of the Carl Perkins Act. They reported that the Carl Perkins Act had not directly affected their jobs or the special education programs in their schools. Seventy-four percent (74%) of the respondents felt vocational assessment information was helpful in planning and programming for special needs students, but the respondents reported specific types of assessments were conducted at the following rates: vocational interest assessment - 69%; vocational abilities assessment - 46%;

vocational special needs assessment - 40.0%. One interpretation of these data may be that the professionals surveyed felt that vocational information is desirable, but that the most crucial information - that of relating the students' abilities and special needs to training - is often not being gathered and not considered when programming decisions are being made.

Transition Activities

Seventy-one percent (71%) of the respondents reported that transition related activities were provided for special needs students. The majority of these activities revolved around the initial phases of transition, with contacts to identify rehabilitation counselors most frequently reported. Other transition process activities were reported far less frequently

Professional Training

Some of the deficits in programming and services for special needs youth may be traced to the professionals' lack of training in the area of transition. Overall, the statewide sample of educators reported taking secondary special education or transition courses as follows: 0 courses - 36%; 1 to 2 courses - 34%; 3 to 4 courses - 21%; and, more than 4 courses - 9%. Forty-seven percent (47%) of counselors, 59% of special education directors, and 40% of high school special education department chairpersons reported taking no secondary special education courses at all.

Conclusion

An analysis of the data from this statewide survey indicates that significant gaps exist in services provided, accessibility to vocational training, and assessment of student needs. Many professionals indicated unfamiliarity with the federal requirements for providing transition services. This, along with the large number of respondents who indicated little or no training in this area may explain why these gaps exist. An alternate interpretation may be that there are other reasons why these gaps exist.

Study 2: Regional Survey of Transition Practices

A study similar to Study 1 was conducted in a rural and remote area of northern Maine. A questionnaire, slightly modified to take into consideration certain demographic characteristics was mailed to all of the special education teachers, secondary principals, guidance/vocational counselors, and special education directors. The 57 subjects, or 59% of those who were included in the mailing, returned the questionnaire.

Vocational Education Training

Eighty-eight percent (88%) of the respondents indicated that secondary students with special needs had access to regualar vocational programs and 75% reported that students had accces to special vocational education programs. A majority of the respondents reported that the students were enrolled in the regular education programs of auto mechanics, auto body, and food services. A far smaller percentage reported that the students were enrolled in data processing (7%), masonry (9%), and drafting (7%).

Almost 30% of the respondents reported that community based training programs were available for students with special needs. This is somewhat lower than the 50% reported in Study 1, the statewide survey. Special needs students were reported to be enrolled most frequently in food services (16%), health occupations (14%), and carpentry (12%).

Conclusion

In general, the respondents in northern Maine seemed to follow the trends established in the statewide survey. I would be helpful to explore why students pursue certain types of vocational training and how these decisions are made. Do the schools systematically assess the vocational training needs of their students who have special needs? Are student needs matched with appropriate training and with the needs of the labor market in this rural area? Why do certain types of training (e.g., automotives, food services) have a much larger percentage of students that other areas? Finally, why are not community based training opportunities, which are particularly suited for rural areas, more extensively developed?

Study 3: Practices and Attitudes

For the third study, we sought to examine in-depth public school transition practices for handicapped students in three suburban/rural school districts. Structured interviews, lasting a maximum one hour in length, were conducted by trained interviewers with the high school principal, a guidance counselor, the district special education director, and a high school special education teacher in each of three districts. These districts were chosen because they were judged to be representative of school districts in Maine. A total of twelve professionals were interviewed. Data from the interviews were collected through notetaking and by tape recording. The data were transcribed, tabulated, and analyzed. The following summary focuses on data concerning professional attitudes.

Professional Attitudes

In an effort to determine attitudes and opinions of school professionals which may influence practices and outcomes, several questions in this area were included.

Barriers to Vocational Education - When asked what they considered the main barrier to providing vocational training for higher level jobs, the respondents were fairly evenly divided between school-based deficits and the students' handicapping conditions. School deficits cited included lack of staff, facilities, funds, program direction, and limited training opportunities for staff. The students' characteristics were mentioned with regard to ability, motivation, and need for special support services. Lack of acceptance by the larger community was also mentioned.

Community-Based Programs The interviewees enthusiastically supported community-based vocational programs for special needs youth because they considered them appropriate for the students and beneficial to the school and the greater community. Their reasons included that "[the students] will live and work in the area;" "[they will] get a realistic picture of work expectations"; and, "[they] learn how they fit in." The interviewees felt that community-based training would foster awareness and sensitivity to the needs of a handicapped population, as well as communication between school and community. They also expressed reservations about putting this type of training into operation: they would need to start small, have appropriate sites, provide many school and agency support services, and solve transportation problems.

Educating Severely Handicapped - Most of the interviewees expressed enthusiastic support for integrating students with severe handicaps into the high school, but they had a number of concerns about implementing such a policy. These concerns related to the severity of handicapping condition, adequacy of programming, funds, planning and preparation, staff training, and social acceptance.

Barriers - When asked specifically what the barriers were to educating students who were severely disabled at the high school in their district, the interviewees cited deficits of the setting, such as inadequate facilities, and crowded classes; the competitiveness of the high school; limited peer opportunities; and limited program options. Lack of social acceptance, seen as another barrier, was thought to emanate from overburdened teachers, negative staff attitudes, and ignorance and fear in the school and community. Others believed that the limited capabilities of the students, their inability to compete, and the time it takes them to learn, were the greatest barriers to integration. Other student limitations were inability to get around, slow rate of speaking, seizures, and inappropriate behaviors or appearance.

General Comments

Overall, the interviewees expressed concerned and cautious optimism. They made numerous responses referring to handicapping conditions,indicating reservations or emphasizing drawbacks; but, they were also positive in their support/acceptance for integration. They were not, however, so sure about others. There was a consensus that additional training was needed to improve the current level of programming and especially to prepare others for the integration of severely handicapped individuals into the public high schools. They identified training needs in the areas of job development, vocational assessment counseling, networking and task analysis. Since the subjects, too, had taken few, if any secondary special education courses, they had largely gained their transition expertise through experience and inservice training. The respondents preferred to meet their present and future training needs through workshops, inservice training, and course work.

Study 4: Employment Outcome Study

The final study was an employment outcome study of identified special education high school graduates between the years 1983 to 1987 in two of the school districts in which the interviews were conducted. The survey instrument was a modified version the Vermont outcome survey tool (Hasazi, Gordon, & Roe, 1985). Telephone interviews were conducted; informants included the former students or a close relative.

Background Data

Data were collected on 23 school-leavers; all were graduates, 14 were female and 9 were male. Fifty percent (50%) had graduated at age 18; 29% at age 19; and 17% at age 20 years. At the time of graduation, 8 were identified as learning disabled; 12 were labelled mentally retarded, and in 3 cases, a label was not ascertained. At the time of the survey, 18 of the former special education students were single and 5 were married. Sixteen (16) individuals reported living with relatives and 7 reported that they were living independently. All of the students reported some form of vocational or life skills education. The majority had pursued programs in home economics., trade & industrial, and health occupations.

Work Experiences

The subjects responded to questions regarding jobs the students had during the summer while attending school. Eleven (11) of the students did not hold summer jobs; three (3) of the students held subsidized summer jobs, and 9 held nonsubsidized summer jobs.

Fourteen (14) of the students did not hold jobs during the school year. Five (5) of the students found jobs with the help of family members; 2 found the jobs with help of professionals; and 2 found jobs on their own.

Regarding work experiences during their school programs, 7 of the former students held school related jobs at the high school; 1 in the community and 3 in both the high school and the community. Of the workers, all reported working at a job for more than 6 months. Sixteen (16) students reported that they received life skills, career education, or vocational education during high school. They reported training in one or more of the following areas: occupational education, home economics, trade and industrial education, health occupation, agriculture, business education, marketing and distribution education, industrial arts, consumer education, and home economics.

Employment Status

When asked what they are doing now, 15 of the former students reported that they are employed (11 full-time, 4 part-time, and 1 at a seasonal job). By handicapping condition, all of the students identified as learning disabled (LD) were employed and all but 2 of these of these former students got the job by themselves. Five (5) of the individuals who were LD were earning more than $5.00 per hour at the time they were surveyed. Seven (7) of the students identified as mentally retarded reported being unemployed for a variety of reasons; and of those employed, none reported earning more then $5.00 per hour. One was earning less than minimum wage, three were at minimum wage, and two were above.

Post Graduation Contacts

The subjects were queried about contacts the students may have had after school graduation with education, vocational training, and agency professionals. Only 1 student was reported to have taken a course at the high school; another student received job training at Goodwill Industries subsequent to graduation. Nine (9) students had agency contacts regarding jobs, but none of those contacts took place after high school.

Conclusion

These two school districts produced employment outcome data generally similar to the findings of other published studies (Hasazi, Gordon, & Roe, 1985; Mithaug, Horiuchi, & Fanning, 1985). All of the students received lifeskills career development programming, but only 66% of the graduates reported vocational training, 50% or less held paying jobs during school.

Perhaps most importantly, a scant 17% report community-based jobs. Most students were receiving minimum wage or less; only a few were paid higher than minimum wage. What impact did their secondary school preparation have on the employment status of the respondents? If success of employment is measured by type of job and wages earned, it appears that for the respondents in these two school districts, their secondary preparation had little effect on their employment status.

Synthesis of the Four Studies

When looked at together, the results of these four studies present a picture of what is occurring in Maine schools relative to the transition process. While school professionals revealed an initial understanding of the transition process, they were just beginning to be aware of their legal and educational responsibilities. Schools have been slow to implement policies and practices in a systematic manner which can assist secondary level special education students in making a successful transition from school to the community. The studies revealed that educators have had little training in transition, and it is unclear who has responsibility for which aspect of the process. It is evident that much more training is needed to assist educators in developing effective transition programs.

What about the students? The students were working in jobs that required little training and offer low wages. The outcome study suggests that schools are not effective in training students for jobs which are above the minimum wage level. The professionals cited deficits in program capabilities, within student deficits, and lack of community acceptance as the primary causes. In addition, many students are not being given the opportunity to take advantage of their legal right to extend their public education to the age of 20 years. (In Maine, special education students can remain in high school until they graduate, which usually occurs at the age 18 of years, or until they reach the age of 20, when they must leave school).

In order to prepare students to lead productive and meaningful lives, and lives which can contribute to society, schools need to be better able to deal with the transition process. It is evident that, in Maine, schools need to better able assess student training needs and to meet these training needs through a variety of approaches. Rural school systems, in particular, may be well suited to developing community-based vocations training over regional vocational programs. Special educational job specialists will be needed to survey the local job market, develop training sites, and make job placements that are tailored to the needs of these sparsely populated communities. The focus should be on matching the individual needs of youth with disabilities and the employment opportunities that the community has to offer.

The results of these studies suggest that additional research is needed in this area. It would be helpful to pursue the following questions: What types of transition policies, practices, and curricula are most effective? What types of training will be beneficial to prepare educators to assist these students? What are important markers of "success" for students once they leave school? How can families and schools best support students as they proceed through the transition process? Finally, longitudinal studies of school leavers need to be carried out.

References

Hasazi, S.B., Gordon, L.R., & Roe, C.A. (1985). Factors associated with the employment status of handicapped youth exiting high school from 1979 to 1983. Exceptional Children, 51, 455-469.

Hasazi, S.B., Gordon, L.R. Roe, C.A. Hull, Finck, & Salembier, G. (1985). A statewide follow-up of post high school employment and residential status of students labeled `mentally retarded´. Education & Training of the Mentally Retarded, 20, 222-234.

Mithaug, D.E., Horiuchi, C.N., & Fanning, P.N. (1985). A report on the Colorado statewide follow-up survey of special education students. Exceptional Children, 51, 397-404.

Wehman, P., Kregel, J., & Seyfarth, J. (1985). Employment outlook for young adults with mental retardation. Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin, 29, 90-99.

Will, M. (1984). Bridges from school to working life: Programs for the handicapped. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Information and Resources for the Handicapped.

Dr. Robert Steinmiller
Ouachita Baptist University
Arkadelphia, Arkansas 71923

Dr. Georgine Steinmiller
Henderson State University
Arkadelphia, Arkansas 71923

Dr. Raouf Halaby
Ouachita Baptist University
Arkadelphia, Arkansas 71923

GIFTED AND TALENTED STUDENTS: THE SHOW MUST GO ON

The importance of challenging our gifted and talented youth cannot be underestimated. The future of our nations' leadership is at stake. This paper will address the following: 1. An overview of Arkansas AEGIS (Academic Enrichment for Gifted in Summer) Program, 2. An indepth view of one of the AEGIS Programs. 3. An elaboration on the process of creating and preforming a historic play.

AN OVERVIEW OF AGEIS

In 1984 Arkansas sponsored its first summer AEGIS Gifted and Talented Programs. The initial endeavor supported five programs and worked with approximately 275 students. By the summer of 1988, AEGIS had grown to thirty seven programs and served approximately 1300 students. The following is a listing and description of the 1988 summer programs.

AEGIS PROGRAMS, 1988
DAY PROGRAMS

1. SUMMER INSTITUTE FOR CREATIVE AND DRAMATIC ARTS

This program is designed for students who have demonstrated a high degree of interest in the creative arts. It focuses on activities that will allow students to extend their creative thinking and production in the areas of creative writing, theater arts, videography, and visual arts.

2. ECOLOGY AND FIELF BIOLOGY

Students will spend several days and nights in the field collecting physical, chemical and biological data on ecosystem structure. At Henderson State University, computer programs, A-V lectures and lab activities will shape the field data into a new understanding of the environment.

3. CRE-8

CRE-8 is designed to expose and train students within the following areas of performing arts: drama, costumes, dance, stage design, make-up, scenic arts, music (vocal and instrumental), and theater management.

4. PROJECT PINE FOREST (PEOPLE, INDUSTRY, NATURAL RESOU..CES, ENVIRONMENTAL ECOLOGY FINDING OUR ROOTS, EVER SEEKING TOMORROW)

Students will encounter an in-depth study of the development of a town from a pioneer mill town to the "Forestry Capital of the World".

5. HEALTH SCIENCE SUMMER ENRICHMENT PROGRAM

This program is designed for students who envision themselves working in the health care profession. Students will be exposed to and have hands on experience with the following instruments: Electrocardiograph, Spectrophotometer, Centrifuge, Electric treadmill, Water bath, Refractometer, Skyndex (electronic body fat calculator), Computerized wellness assessments, Accu-check II blood glucose monitor and HPR-100 computerized strength measurements.

6. MATH KALEIDOSCOPE

Math Kaleidoscope is designed to challenge mathematically gifted students. This challenge will consist of three parts: an emphasis on problem-solving techniques and practice, including original problems developed by the students themselves; exposure to individuals in a number of fields who will demonstrate applications of mathematics in their careers and in the "real world"; and introduction to some topics from discrete mathematics, an area of mathematics that some experts feel will be as important as calculus within a decade.

7. MATHEMATICAL MODELING-THE SOLUTION TO REAL WORLD PROBLEMS

Real world problems, as opposed to "textbook" problems, are seldom encountered in high school textbooks. To make mathematics

come alive, topics from various areas of mathematical modeling will be presented, including machine scheduling, inventory control, network theory, and linear programming.

9. BREAKAWAY

This program will introduce students to non-traditional approaches of making art through a series of individualized and group projects. Students will be exposed to non-traditional methods of conceptualization.

10. TECHNITRON

This program shows how man creatively shapes technology to meet his needs and uses technology as an expression of art.

11. ECOLOGICAL STUDIES OR AQUATIC HABITATS IN THE OUACHITA NATIONAL FOREST

Students interested in pursuing an exciting adventure into the biological and chemical realm of aquatic habitats in the Ouachita National Forest will assemble at the UAM Science Center. Audiovisuals, computer-assisted modules, and innovative lectures by highly, qualified faculty will involve students in the dynamics of plant and animal communities in the pond, lake and stream ecosystems.

12. MASH (MEDICAL APPLICATION OF SCIENCE FOR HEALTH)

The students will have the opportunity to gain a better understanding of how the basic sciences relate to medical diagnosis and treatment. This will be accomplished through labs and lectures. Professionals participating in this program include; Nurses, Medical Technologists, Physicians, Radiologic Technologists, Respiratory Therapists, Physical Therapists and Dietitians.

13. I SAVE (Independent Science and Views of Environment)

This program will challenge students to explore environmental concerns. It will be conducted at a 360 acre lake/wooded area in scenic Washington County.

14. LAUREATE INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

Laureate International Studies (LIS) is a program for students wh envision themselves as future leaders. Its unique design allows students to explore and discuss global issues with national, state and local individuals involved in international affairs, study a foreign language, and conduct research with the latest in technology.

15. SUMMER SCIENCE INSTITUTES

This program offers a comprehensive curriculum in science and mathematics. Students with the required prerequisites may apply to one of five institutes: two Biology Institutes, the Chemistry Institute, the Fielf Science Institute and the Micrococomputer, Measurements and Mathematics Institute. An academic year outreach program will put supplies and equipment into the science classrooms of high schools that participate.

16. KALIEDOSCOPE, A CREATIVE EXPERIENCE

This program will offer students an exciting opportunity for creative expression through the performing arts. After a study of the arts and how they interrelate, the students will create and produce their own final program.

RESIDENTIAL

17. MANY PATHS TO THE MOUNTAIN

In this AEGIS program each student will explore physical learning by classes in archeology, ceramics, and wellness. In order to look at the methods of learning established by academic disciplines, they will choose two of four classes: literature, music, intellectual history, and psychology/sociology.

18. ART ENCOUNTER

"Art Encounter" is for students who are in art, music, dance, or theatre. Activities are designed to: foster the spontaneous, creative arts process; develop appreciation of an sensitivity to art, music, dance, and theatre; and demonstrate the impact of the arts in society. Students will learn how to create art or theater works or compose music or dance.

19. MOTIVATIONAL SCIENCE - AMICROBIOLOGICAL/CHEMISTRY PARADIGM

Students will engage in a science program focusing on aspects of biology and chemistry atypical of their normal K-12 exposure. Specifically, their studies will concentrate on micro-biological and chemical concepts and techniques.

20. FUTURISTICS - THE YEAR 2000

"The world's greatest need is an appetite for the future." (C.P. Snow) By studying the future, people can better anticipate what lies ahead. Students will consider many issues which are of global concern, learn about techniques used by futurists and take a future trip as a planning tool.

21. UPLAND AND LOWLAND FIELD TECHNIQUES

Students interested in pursuing an exciting adventure in science will study the ecologies of uplands and lowlands in west and southwest Arkansas. Collecting techniques for each area will be stressed. Air and water quality will be sampled, and flora and fauna of each area will be studied.

22. PROJECT GO (GEOLOGICAL ORIENTATION)

Project GO (Geological Orientation) is a "hands on" laboratory and field trip covering 2,000 miles throughout Arkansas. Physical and Historical Geology will be presented using Arkansas examples. Students, accompanied by professional staff and geologists from the Arkansas Geological Commission, will experience mines, caves, float trips, actual field work, and a variety of industrial plants.

23. WHEN IN ROME DO AS THE ROMAND DID: ROME BROUGHT TO LIFE

Students will experience Latin as a spoken language through simple conversation and song, practice spoken Latin and learn common Latin phrases. The daily life and customs of Rome will be explored through photography, pottery, sculpture, and drama.

24. PROJECT LAND (LOVE ARKANSAS' NATURAL DIVISIONS)

Join forces with PROJECT LAND for three weeks of traveling and camping in Arkansas. See Arkansas' caves, geologic deposits, trees, fish, birds, deer and its natural secluded areas. Arkansas' natural resources will appear at every bend as you float its rivers. The many uses of resources will be seen through tours of industries.

25. ARKANSAS-AN ABUNDANCE OF ENERGY RESOURCES

Where will the energy come from to heat and light our homes in the future? Arkansas possesses an abundance of resources that point to a bright future and and energy-secure Arkansas. These questions and their answers will come alive with field trip experiences to Nuclear 1, and Greer's Ferry.

26. RIGHT SIDE OF TECHNOLOGY IN THE ARTS

This program is designed to give qualified high school students an understanding of arts technology, an understanding of the hemispherical workings of the brain, and an opportunity to produce genuinely creative performances and works of art through the marriage of technology and the workings of the right side of the brain.

27. THE CHALLENGE OF TECHNOLOGY: THE COMMUNICATIONS REVOLUTION

This program will provide an exciting and challenging exposure to the world of media and communications. Students will develop skills in television production, journalism, word processing and interpersonal relations while working as members of a team whose goal is to plan, write, videotape and edit a thirty-minute television documentary.

28. MEADOWCREEK WEEKS

Meadowcreek Weeks is a program of environmental educations at the Meadowcreek Project, an environmental education center near Fox. Aimed at students interested in the environment and/or agriculture, it will be broadly interdisciplinary. The theories and methods of the natural and social sciences, examination of human values, and creative technology and architecture will be applied to problems of the environment and agriculture.

29. FROM THE FRONTIER TO THE FREEWAY: 152 YEARS OF ARKANSAS CULTURE, PEOPLE, AND PLACES

Because of the renewed statewide interest in Arkansas history brought about by the sesquicentennial celebration, this is a unique opportunity for students to participate in a variety of activities including lectures, discussions, field trips, and a historic play which will provide 152 years of cultural, musical, dramatic, literary, and linguistic backgrounds to Arkansas' history. The participants will meet an Arkansas novelist,

dramatist, poet, archivist, writers, musicians,environmentalists; they will visit the State Capitol and other historic sites including the Caddo Indian Museum and Old Washington State Park; they will play old and modern musical instruments; they will write and produce a historical play; and they will participant in a study will write and produce a historical play; and they will participate in a study of Arkansas expressions and sayings with computer analysis and interpretation.

30. PROJECT C.A.V.E.S. (CREATIVE ADVENTURES AND VALUABLE EXPERIENCES THROUGH SPELUNKING)

Students will participate in a minimum of five field trips and attend special classes in cave biology, acquiring spelunking skills, appreciating the aesthetic qualities of caves, and learning the importance of leadership and interdependence through teamwork.

31. SUMMER B.R.E.A.K. (BUFFALO RIVER EDUCATIONAL ADVENTURES FOR KIDS)

The goal of this program is to emphasize how man relates and reacts with nature and his environment. Hydrology, geology, biology, botany, and environmental studies as they relate to the Buffalo River will be emphasized.

32. PROJECT WET 'n' WILD

Students will be involved in field classes with "hands-on" experiences in: learning to use scientific tools, plant ecology, aquatic studies, bird and mammal behaviors, subterranean exploration, and geological examinations.

33. DISCOVERING PLUM BAYOU AND OTHER NATIVE AMERICAN CULTURES

Students will work for one week side-by-side with professional archeologists at the Toltec Mound Excavation Site, North Little Rock, as members of the Arkansas Archeological Society. They will return to Southern Arkansas University on June 17 where they will continue their study of American Indians and of communication methods.

34. TECHNOLOGY AS AN APPLIED SCIENCE

Students will be introduced to electronics, robotics, aviation, and computer aided technologies. The role that technology plays in our society and how we fit into the total world-wide application of technology will be stressed.

35. FULBRIGHT SCHOOL OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS

The Fulbright School of Public Affairs will provide students with a unique opportunity to Examine current social, economic and political concerns, issues and attitudes in America and the world today and Explore the meaning of civic responsibility in a democartic society, to Consider the influence of cultural values and traditions on politics and public policies and the role of today's media in shaping public opinion.

36. INTEGRATION OF THE ARTS: A THEATRE WORKSHOP

The theme of this interdiscipinary prigram will ba "Pricess and the Performance". Participants will explore the various elements and how they are integrated in the process of creating a theatrical production. The areas of writing, acting, music, dance,lighting, state management and set and costume design will be investigated from a technological as well as an artistic perspective, culminating in a production, which will be the work of the students.

37. THE STROLLING PLAYERS

"We're gettin' our act together, and we're takin' it on the road." That describes "The Strolling Players", a program which provides experience in the performing arts. Students will meet in Walnut Ridge to spend five days participating in rehearsals and various learning experiences in preparation for stage production of the play "The Strolling Players". The troupe will then depart for eight days of travel, performing at and camping in eight state parks in Arkansas. The purpose of "The Strolling Players" is to offer peer interaction and a performing arts experience emphasizing the early touring theatre in Arkansas.

(More information on each of these programs may be obtained by writing to the authors of the paper or to the Gifted and Talented Program, Department of Education, Little Rock, AR.)

IN DEPTH VIEWS

Because of the renewed awareness, interest, and curricular emphasis on Arkansas history brought about by the Arkansas Sesquicentennial celebration in 1986, this program provided a unique opportunity for 9th through 12th grade students to participate in a variety of activities including lectures, discussions, field trips, and a historic play which provided 152 years of cultural, musical, dramatic, literary, and linguistic backgrounds to Arkansas' history. The participants met in Arkansas novelist, dramatist, poet, archivist, writers, musicians, environmentalists; they visited the State Capitol and other historic sites including the Caddo Indian Museum and old Washington State Park; they played old and modern musical instruments; they wrote and produced a historical play; and they participated in a study of Arkansas expressions and sayings with computer analysis and interpretation.

Now in its third year, the program is designed to appeal to 9th through 12th grade students who are interested in an interdisciplinary approach whose purpose is to integrate the humanities, social sciences, and future economic development. Furthermore, because of the National Endowment for the Humanities' emphasis on the need to expose students to the humanities (art, literature, drama, music, history), this program, capitalizing on the recent historic occasion, helps develop a better, stronger and more meaningful acuity to and an understanding of the humanities through the familiar and the native.

The program is geared for gifted and talented students who have an interest in Arkansas history on the one hand, and in the humanities on the other. Specifically, the history of Arkansas art, music, literature (fiction, poetry, drama), history, language, sociology, and natural resources (and uses thereof) were very carefully discussed. Each instructor was asked to do the following: (1) deliver a semi-formal lecture to the whole group, and (2) based on the lecture, initiate and encourage informal discussion with small group work on a given issue or problem. The students were encouraged to use higher level thinking skills to resolve a given hypothetical problem or to analyze a given issue. Where applicable, the instructor conducted a tour as an illustration to his/her lecture.

The thrust of this particular three-week residential program, however, lay in this attempt to bridge the past with the present. In order to fully integrate all of tha academic areas and their related activities, the students were required to write and produce a historical play based on various aspects of Arkansas history. The plot material was derived from various lectures, individual readings, their own journals, original journals written by various Arkansas personalities, and their own observations and interactions within their individual groups.

Every effort was made to recruit students representing a cross-sectional, socio-economic level as well as an equal ratio of male to female students. The criteria for the selection process included the following: grades, standardized test scores, involvement in extra-curricular activities (such as honor societies, student government, sports, plays, music programs and clubs), and teacher recommendations (regarding character, creativity, initiative, leadership, ability and commitment to tasks).

The forty (40) students selected for the program were divided into four groups (with a cross-sectional grade level and geographical representation as well as an equal male-to-female ratio) representing different eras of Arkansas history. Each group of students was assigned reading and writing tasks as well as research and dramatic activities which were derived from specific and significant historical eras.

These groups were as follows:

Group I.	Indians and Early Settlers, through Statehood, 1700-1850.
Group II.	Civil War and After, 1860-1900.
Group III.	Early 20th Century through Post World War I, 1900-1935.
Group IV.	Post Depression through Modern Times, 1936-Present.

Dividing the students into four groups of ten each lent itself to an excellent learning environment. This was particularly helpful in the small group interactions (brain-storming, discussion, and problem solving) sessions.

Because we wanted the students to learn and exercise leadership, group dynamics and the process of selecting group spokespersons were left up to the students. Every student was encouraged to participate in all aspects of the individual group work and the larger collective group work.

When the program was first begun during the summer of 1986, the students were asked to produce skits based on their two week experience. The following year the students, under the direction of a drama coach, produced a one hour comedy based on a real historical incident derived from the Arkansas frontier days. Because of the success of these two previous performances, I decided that for the third year group's dramatic activity the students would write and produce their own play. Hence, very early in the session the students were made aware that each of their groups had to write a script for a complete act whose general theme would deal with some aspect of Arkansas history. In order to prepare the students for both the writing skills namely the ability to write creatively, to create plots, to develop the cognitive backgrounds on which the plot would depend, the students had to listen to lectures, to work in groups, and to write creative and original essays.

It should be stressed at this point that each student was required to participate in the script writing. Each student was also required to be involved in some aspect of the production. The various lectures, activities and field trips were organized

in chronological fashion so as to provide the students with a better sense of historicity. Furthermore, a balance between classroom lectures and other activities was maintained. these lectures and other educational activities were provided during the morning and afternoon hours, while a two hour later evening segment was designated for script writing and other dramatic preparations. An archaeologist lectured on Arkansas' Indian roots, and historian presented an overview of Arkansas history beginning with territorial times and going through modern times, two sociologists lectured on the various social structures and social support systems with special comparison of rural and urban societies, and art historian lectured on Arkansas' architectural heritage, and Arkansas novelist discussed her works, a historian lectured on the value of recording and interpreting of history, a poet lectured on creativity, two dramatists worked with plot and setting, a linguist presented a lecture on Arkansas' linguistic heritage, a humorist lectured on and read examples of American humor, and a group of musicians gave a historical background to Arkansas' musical heritage.

What follows is a list of specific objectives which were to be accomplished within the two week period:

1. Upon the completion of lectures and discussions regarding Arkansas history (including Indian culture, social structures - past and present - architectural history, musical history, the study of the Arkansas Delta as it is portrayed in the works of Faulkner and Twain) and after instruction in methods and approaches to writing history, the students will write a fictional diary, short story, or other form of creative writing which will exhibit knowledge of the historical topics, or will compose a song or work of art which would portray the study of Arkansas history in some form.
2. The students, during a discussion of an autobiographical novel, Big Doc's Girl, will be able to answer pertinent oral questions and participate in the discussions.
3. The students, at the conclusion of a study of Arkansas' natural resources, will participate in a chemical analysis of the water at Lake Degray and in a discussion involving the impact of pollution on the environment, as well as be able to project into the future (either in written or oral form) to determine how the delicate balance in the Arkansas environment can be maintained.
4. At the conclusion of the study of migratory routes through Arkansas and their impact on Arkansas dialects, the students will conduct a language survey in Clark and Hempstead counties.
5. The students, upon the conclusion of the instruction in the use of the computer in the area of the analysis of data, will compile their own linguistic data by feeding the results of the surveys into the computer.
6. The students, upon hearing a published Arkansas poet lecture on and read poetry, will attempt to write their own poems. Dr. Johnny Wink will make himself available for individual

students who would like to have some of their poems critiqued.

7. At the conclusion of field trips and tours to Little Rock and other historical sites, the students will be able to evaluate and synthesize the importance of future economic growth in the area of Arkansas' future agricultural, industrial, mineral, and hydrological capabilities.
8. Upon instruction in the area of hunger and its impact on the lives of Arkansans, the students will better understand the causes and impact which hunger has on the lives of modern-day Arkansans.
9. Upon learning dramatic techniques, such as writing a play, acting, producing, costume making, stage managing, etc., the students will "create" and produce their own play which will be the result of synthesizing factual historical, cultural, and other information gained from lectures and field trips.

While the lectures and activities were done in tandem and in a chronological manner, the dramatic activities were reserved for the evenings. Divided into their era groups, the students met for two hours for the purpose of developing the plot and characterization. Each group was instructed to write and act for a historical play covering any aspect of Arkansas history; they were given leeway regarding locale and theme. The program director and the drama director/coach worked with the individual groups to fine tune the plots and to provide instruction in the areas of characterization, dialogue, theme and other literary and technical aspects.

Within two weeks the students wrote a four act play which was produced, with much success, on the final night of the program. I am very convinced that high school students are very creative, are very flexible, are eager to learn, and are very capable of dramatizing real or fictional events. Perhaps the most significant thing about this production was the fact that each student was involved in a particular aspect of the production, whether it was script writing, acting, costume and set design, or sound and technical work. The credit goes to our drama director/coach whose remarks provide the necessary information.

CREATIVE PROCESS

This section will elaborate on the steps used to guide gifted and talented students through the process of creating and performing their own one act plays based on historical research.

First of all, the students were made well aware from the very beginning that they were going to publicly perform for 200 to 300 people four scenes of their own creation. They would research, write, produce and perform their own dramatic work. The students knew that they would be actively involved in the process and the product. Very little resistance was experienced other than some of the more shy students expressing concern about having to perform on stage. Although most students did eventually appear on stage, some of the forty did find an interest in technical production that precluded their being on stage, which resolved the situation nicely. Most of the students took on technical projects as well. Our observation was that most of the gifted and talented students were more that excited to be on stage and a sense of purpose pervaded the whole enterprise.

Second, the forty students were grouped evenly into four research and performance teams. The groupings crossed grade levels from rising sophomores to rising seniors, and represented geographic distribution, and even male-to-female distribution. Principles of small group communication were employed to allow a full sending and receiving of ideas. The important early brainstorming sessions were prefaced by instructors emphasizing the importance of everyone's contributions. The instructors also encouraged and promoted breakthroughs as the ideas came out of the four groups. The whole thrust of the organization was to develop teamwork. Each of the four groups would show scenes in progress to the other three groups a number of times before opening night, which gave a positive sense of progress for everyone.

Students gathered ideas for their scenes from the lectures and activities that made up the summer program. Students were prepared by lecture and discussion regarding dramatic structure and dialogue. As the students generated ideas and the time quickly approached to script out the scenes, theatre workshops were conducted to allow the students to see both sides of the process: from the stage and from the script. Improvisational activities on the performance stage allowed the students to efficiently become acquainted with the area and with acting as well. In one evening, the students went from observers learning stage terminology to actors improvising ideas that they had already selected as important. This improvisational underpinning was most important.

Improvisation allowed the students to work out their ideas with a feeling of movement, character and setting. Members of each group recorded ideas and dialogue and at the end of each evening the script was revised. This leads to another important element in the process, the use of computer word processing as a tool to enable effective and efficient use of time.

Students would input the current scene into computer files and print the latest edition for actors, technical crews and the drama coach. This process allowed the script to take on an official look and allowed the actors to work from an increasingly more reliable script which gave confidence by identifying sections that were surviving. Also a sense of individual and group pride was given as the students saw their productivity take shape as part of the whole.

Videotaping was also an important part of the process. Students could see for themselves what others were seeing. Dialogue could be retrieved as well as movement and characterization. Videotaping allowed the students to assess how their contributions fit into the larger sense of production. The final production in front of 275 people was recorded. This taping made possible the final construction of scripts. To give a final sense of accomplishment, interested students could provide a blank tape to be returned with the show recorded for their own future reference.

Within two weeks, the students wrote a four act play which was produced, with much success, on the final night of the summer program. The high school students were very creative, very flexible, eager to learn and were very capable of dramatizing real or fictional events. Perhaps the most significant thing about this production was the fact that each student was involved in a particular aspect of the production, whether it was script writing, acting, costume and set design, or sound and technical work. Much of the credit goes to our drama director/coach whose encouragement provided the necessary environment for such a creative venture. The overall support from the State of Arkansas, the State Department of Education, Office of Special Education, Ouachita Baptist University, and the program director allowed the gifts and talents of the summer students to emerge: That is what gifted and talented education can do.

IS PARENT AND EDUCATOR COLLABORATION A REALITY IN RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION?

PURPOSE:

Parents and educators want "the best" for their children/students with special needs. Unfortunately the methods to achieve these "best things" frequently conflict. Why is this? There is a better way. This way is called collaboration. What is collaboration? What are the parts to collaboration and given these parts what are the corresponding responsibilities for the parents and the educators?

The purpose of this 3 1/2 hour presentation is to empower parents and educators with a clear understanding of what collaboration is and provide them with the tools that will enable parents and educators to work even more effectively TOGETHER.

OBJECTIVES:

Participants attending this presentation will...

1. Answer the question, "What is collaboration?"
2. Identify the most effective environment that supports collaboration.
3. Identify and define the tools of collaboration AND describe the corresponding responsibility for using these tools.
4. Practice using these tools with trainer feedback.
5. Design a Collaborative Action Plan that will address the reality (right now stuff) regarding my child's/student's rural special education program.

RURAL FOCUS:

Collaboration is an effective process that results in student's learning experiences. In rural special education programs, collaboration is even more essential given limited resources, geographic constraints, and the need for creative programming. Parents and educators working TOGETHER can enhance the results of their child's/student's experiences. This sounds great. The real question is, "How do parents and educators really make collaboration happen?" **Here's how!**

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS:

What is collaboration...and more importantly what are the practical tools that support collaboration? What is the parent's role in this process and the educator's role as well?

Collaboration is most effective when the involved parties first understand the value of collaborative environments. In this presentation, collaborative environments will be defined through the use of the principles of Cooperative Learning. These principles include:

1. Positive Goal Interdependence
2. Individual Accountability
3. Face to Face interaction
4. Collaborative social skills
5. Processing what made the interaction successful

These principles are well researched components developed by Drs. Roger and David Johnson at the Cooperative Learning Project located at the University of Minnesota. These principles are generic to human interactions. As a result, they can generalize to the collaborative nature of parents and educators working together. This presentation will identify these principles and demonstrate this generalization effect in a down to earth, practical application manner.

Once the collaborative environment has been established, specific collaboration tools will be identified, discussed and practiced. These specific tools will include:

*Concerns Based Adoption Model (CBAM), Dr. Gene Hall, University of Texas
*Glickman's Developmental Supervision Model, Dr. Carl Glickman, University of Georgia
*Coping Process, Dr. Kenneth Moses, Resource Networks, Inc.
*Principles of Effective Instruction, Dr. Madeline Hunter, UCLA

Why these tools? First, they address the issue of planning for change AND secondly, they do this from the point of view of adult learners. You will recall that our presentation outcome is to "empower parents and

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS: continued

educators" with the necessary skills and tools for better collaboration. Learning about these tools AND developing skills to generalize the positive effects they can have will achieve this outcome.

SUMMARY:

In summary, parents and educators who live in rural settings need to develop quality collaboration. Effective collaboration involves...

- *establishing appropriate environments for interactions,
- *addressing the needs of adult learners by learning the use of "new tools"
- *and the practical application of both of these items to real world rural special education issues.

Parents and educators will complete this presentation, by developing a Collaboration Action Plan. This plan will guide them as they address the special needs of their child/student in a rural school setting.

Paper presented to:
The Ninth Annual Conference of the American Council on
Rural Special Education (ACRES)/National Rural and Small Schools Consortium (NRACC)

Education and the Changing Rural Community: Anticipating the 21st Century

Educational Placement of HIV-infected Students in the Public Schools: Policy Considerations for Rural Educators

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

690

Wemme E. Walls, Ed.D.
Institute for the Study of Exceptionalities
Virginia Tech
College of Education
103 Jackson Street
Blacksburg, VA 24061
(703) 961-5167

EDUCATIONAL PLACEMENT OF HIV INFECTED STUDENTS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS: POLICY CONSIDERATIONS FOR RURAL EDUCATORS

In recent years with the passage of the Education of the Handicapped Act (1975) public schools have greatly expanded programs for children with special educational needs. However, educational programs and policies have not yet met the particular health and educational needs of children with chronic illnesses (Hobbs, 1985). Identification and protection of chronically ill children as a "group" with guarantees and protections of the EHA has been difficult and continues to be controversial. The issues that are specific policy questions for the chronically ill child encompass specific issues which are as controversial for the child with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection. Due to the additional concerns of health and safety to others the educational placement of HIV-infected children involves a myriad of issues facing regular education and special education administrators and educators, and public health officials.

The purpose of this paper is to focus on new developments in medicine and in the courts that may have crucial implications for existing policies related to the educational placement issues of the HIV-infected student. A review of the salient medical and legal aspects related to the educational placement issues of school attendance for children with the HIV infection is presented to provide information that will serve as a resource to public school personnel who are among the professionals that must make informed decisions on public school attendance policies for students with a lethal, complex, and controversial disease. Recommendations for decision-making and policy will be discussed including awareness of pertinent state education, civil rights, and public health law; establishment of a vehicle for maintaining a network of resources for disseminating and implementing new information; knowledge of existing public and educational policies at national, state, and local levels to support educational policy and decision-making that is reasonable and sound; and issues of confidentiality and the infected child's right to privacy. Policy considerations related to the unique aspects of the rural setting will be reviewed to serve as an information resource for school officials to enable them to make informed proactive decisions. The paper reviews results of a research study that includes (1) medical evidence that supports decision-making policies on admission or exclusion of HIV-infected students in the public schools; (2) an examination of state anti-discrimination laws, state special education laws, state communicable disease laws, and state and selected local policy statements in sixteen states; (3) an analysis of the relevant legal issues of the Education of the Handicapped Act (EHA), Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, and constitutional issues pertinent to educational placement of HIV-infected children; and (4) case law "in point" or "analogous" to the issues addressed.

The HIV infection which envelopes what has been referred to as Acquired Immunodeficiency virus (AIDS) and AIDS-Related Complex (ARC) conditions, has emerged as a

serious public health problem in this country. It is an issue of social, political, medical, economic, and legal controversy. Mass media coverage and the growing complexity of scientific information present a confusing picture to the public at large. Issues surrounding the educational placement of public school children who are identified with the virus are equally controversial, complex, and confusing to educators and school officials who are responsible to the communities that support the local educational agencies (LEAs). School officials are placed in a position of balancing the duty to protect the health and safety of the students and the duty to protect the school system.

Transfusion-associated and perinatal transmission cases of AIDS and the HIV-infection account for a small percentage of overall cases in this country. Approximately 1.5% of the CDC reported cases of AIDS are among infants, children, and adolescents. Although the percentage is small when looking at overall numbers of reported AIDS cases, the numbers are expected to increase dramatically with estimates of ten times the current numbers within five years (Baltimore and Wolff, 1986; Phair, 1987).

The appearance of AIDS cases in children and the well-publicized issue of school attendance for several of these children is of concern to public health, school health and school officials faced with the educational placement decisions of an issue that has attracted community interest and concern. The fear of the unknown can have serious ramifications legally, ethically, and socially. The public schools are in a unique position to assume a role in providing to staff, pupils, parents, and the community both an awareness and interest in one of the most complex issues of the decade. Rural educators are faced with additional considerations due to the general educational delivery concerns of the rural setting (Helge, 1983).

Medical experts in the field of AIDS research generally support the assumption that the HIV infection is not transmitted easily or casually. However, controversy continues as to the solidity of this assumption causing a potential for continual misunderstandings in dealing with the disease and the individuals infected. Public schools are among those subjected to this controvery. When there is controversy among the professionals on the issues of "casual" transmission, some school systems have been understandably resistant in accepting the assurances of the medical profession in developing policies on procedures for educational placement of children with the virus (Weiner, 1986).

Local community constraints and political controls complicate the decision-making process. Issues differentiating the rural school setting from the urban setting may also add to the complexities. Geographic isolation, informal systems of communication and lack of availability of professional resources are among many of the issues that the rural educator must additionally address when considering policy for educational placement of the HIV-infected student. Although many school districts have developed policies based on immediate need, many communities have acted in a proactive manner, anticipating that inevitably a child or children with the HIV-infection will be attending their schools. The "inevitability" continues to become more apparent, in part due to the movement of the virus into the heterosexual community, increasing the numbers of those infected with the virus; and thus, increasing the numbers of children born with the AIDS virus through perinatal transmission.

The HIV infection is not known or suspected of being transmitted from one child to another in schools, day-care, or foster-care settings. Transmission would necessitate exposure of the virus from open cuts to the blood or other body fluids of an infected child, a highly unlikely occurrence in the school environment. Routine safety procedures for handling blood or other body fluids are effective in preventing transmission from children with the HIV-infection to other children in classroom settings (Koop, 1986). Therefore schools need no special precautions to protect others in the environment from possible transmission of the virus with exception of the adoption of routine precautions for handling blood and body fluids in cases of accident or injury.

The National CDC guidelines first issued in August of 1985 recommended that, in most cases, school-age children with the AIDS virus be allowed to enter and/or remain in school. CDC recommendations suggest restrictive environments as appropriate for pre-school children, children with open lesions, or children lacking control of body secretions who are HIV-infected. In addition to the health and safety guidelines, the CDC recommendations recognize that there are legal issues to be considered in forming guidelines for the education of infected children, including the constitutional rights of the individual; the protections of handicapped children under the EHA and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973; and the confidentiality of student's school records under the Family Education Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) of 1974 and the regulations for EHA. National education groups such as the National Education Association, American Federation of Teachers, and the Council of Exceptional Children have issued policies on the HIV-infection and educational placement issues that parallel National Centers for Disease Control (CDC) recommendations of case-by-case decision-making on attendance issues (Weiner, 1986).

Legal actions that approximately parallel the publications of the CDC guidelines were brought in Indiana, New York, New Jersey by parents and others concerned with the school attendance of children diagnosed with AIDS (White v. Western School Corp., 1985; District 27 v. Board of Education of the City of New York, 1985; Board of Education of the City of Plainfield v. Cooperman, 1985). To date the courts have generally held that children with AIDS should be permitted to attend school unless attendance of the child is contrary to reasonable medical judgments of the child's physician and/or public health officials. Analogous cases involving school attendance of children with herpes simplex virus (HSV) and hepatitis B virus (HBV) have been previously resolved in favor of infected children who were seeking entrance to classrooms (Council Bluffs Education Association v. Council Bluffs Community School District, 1984; New York Association for Retarded Children v. Carey, 1979; Community High School District #155 v. Dery, 1984).

In November of 1986, the first decision of a case "in point" concerning a school attendance case was decided by a federal court in California. The finding of the court held that AIDS is a protective handicap under Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, thus the school district involved in the suit was required to "reasonably accommodate" the child's handicap. Additionally, the court held that the school district failed to show that the child presented a risk to others rejecting 1985 CDC guidelines that suggest biting as high risk behavior which may require a more restrictive environment (Thomas v. Atascadero, 1986).

Emerging issues in AIDS litigation and legislation that may have impact on school attendance decisions include the exclusion of children not identified with AIDS or HIV infection, but in household contact with the virus (Matthews & Neslund, 1987; Weiner, 1986), and/or cases of children who are asymptomatic carriers of the HIV infection and encounter difficulties in attending school (Phipps v. Saddleback, 1986).

AIDS has already had a profound effect on the United States medical community. The growing array of cases and legislation indicates that AIDS-related legal issues in the public health and education sectors will have significant influence on public school policy and decision-making related to placement of children with AIDS, ARC, or the HIV infection in public school classrooms. The controversy that surrounds the educational placement in the public schools of children with AIDS, ARC, or asymptomatic virus continues, as medical and legal issues unfold.

School officials are often unaware of court decisions and the implications of those decisions on problem-solving, decision-making, and policy issues. Some school officials have been faced with the additional burden of decision-making and policy recommendations for an issue in which there has been no previous policy and no conclusive information on the medical and legal aspects of the concern.

A widely publicized example of a potential dilemma facing school systems related to the emerging issue of AIDS and its broader counterpart, "communicable disease," is the Kokomo, Indiana case of White v. Western School Corp. (1985). In defending the policy of excluding the fourteen-year old from the classroom, school officials supported a position that was consistent with communicable disease law in the state, "although the state had issued guidelines directing schools to admit most students with the AIDS virus" (Weiner, 1986).

There is the need to clarify existing laws and to anticipate emerging laws that impact upon the determination of educational placement of children with the HIV infection. A study that examines emerging precedents and patterns in a previously uncharted area of law, such as AIDS litigation and legislation, will provide information that will enable school officials to discern the basis for the decisions rendered or the possible course of action that might be anticipated in future disputes. In delineating precedents and patterns, school officials will be able to make informed proactive decisions that will promote preventative law and policy, both cost-effective and time-efficient to the educational system.

Decision-makers should be familiar with medical evidence and legal issues that may both directly and indirectly affect policy. Informed school personnel provide the impetus for the establishment and continuance of positive, well-developed dialogue among staff, students, parents, and the community.

While there is no medical evidence to support the exclusion of children from regular school attendance based on suspicion of or identification of the HIV infection, in presenting medical evidence for the establishment of policy in educational decision-making, it must be stressed that the nature of the information is dynamic. Individuals involved in and responsible for policy decisions must keep abreast of new developments as they are reported, in order to provide accurate information and knowledgeable leadership. The Centers for Disease Control (CDC) and the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) recommendations on school attendance provide guidelines that suggest that some HIV-infected students may pose a greater risk than others and a more restrictive environment may be warranted for those students. CDC and AAP guidelines and recommendations provide a basis for arguing that there is minimal risk of transmission of the HIV infection in casual settings, such as the classroom.

In 1987, the *Report of the Surgeon General's Workshop on Children with HIV Infection and Their Families* issued recommendations that support the existing CDC and AAP guidelines as adequate resources in most respects with modifications suggested as they relate to the preschool population. In the *Report* it is noted that "it should become possible for AIDS to be considered with neither more of less emotion than other severe illnesses of infancy and childhood. Key issues of epidemiology are poorly understood by most segments of society. A concerted community effort should be undertaken. " (Recommendation 8) Well-informed school officials responsible for policies and procedures on educational placement are in the best position to educate and inform parents, children, and staff on an issue that is often misunderstood. Awareness of sound medical evidence to support educational decision-making provides a means of projecting well-grounded information to the school population and community at large.

The need for further study in the area of medical aspects related to educational placement issues of HIV-infected students includes efforts to isolate the unique needs of the high risk groups specific to childhood and adolescence, such as the sexually abused and/or the substance abuser. Adolescents represent a unique subset of individuals whose specific needs must be addressed in communicating the circumstances surrounding transmission and contraction of the virus. Additional needs for study include the implications of the disproportionate number of urban and minority children and adolescents infected with or at-risk for transmission of the HIV infection and the impact the spread of the virus will have on these groups, medically and educationally. Future study to address confidentiality is warranted. A comparison of attitudes and perceptions between school personnel in districts

that have direct need to know policies for all individuals responsible for the education of the HIV-infected student and those who have strict confidentiality with complete anonymity is suggested as one measure to evaluate the degree of stigma and fear that may be associated with the issue.

Emerging legal issues presented by the AIDS controversy primarily focus on the aspects of educational placement and provision of services for children in the public schools with the HIV infection. Of significance are the constitutional issues of equal protection and right to association, the determination of qualifying handicap under Section 504, and the application of the EHA to children with AIDS or the HIV infection. School personnel should be advised that while an HIV-infected student may not necessarily be identified as "handicapped" under EHA, the HIV-infected student is deemed as "handicapped" for purposes of protection under Section 504.

Federal judicial interpretations support the content that AIDS and the continuum of illnesses known as the HIV infection qualify as a protected handicap under Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act indicating that an automatic exclusion policy of children with the HIV infection from public schools should be viewed as a violation of Section 504 and its implementing regulations.

The EHA defines "handicap" more narrowly than section 504 and not all children deemed "handicapped" for purposes of Section 504 will necessarily qualify as "other health impaired" (OH). AIDS (and the HIV infection) may or may not be considered as a "communicable disease" under state law; and may or may not be considered "OHI", dependent upon state definitional criteria.

For most purposes of the programming under the EHA, children with AIDS or with the HIV infection are not educationally handicapped merely because of the illness. The status of the child in regard to special programs depends upon the ability to perform in the regular classroom without adverse effects. If it is determined that the HIV-inected child requires special education services, EHA regulations apply. Although the EHA recognized that not all children can be placed in a normal school environment, the statute does not require that a decision not to mainstream be justified by evidence that reflects the child's special needs.

State administrative guidelines, with the exceptional of the regulatory status of procedures in Pennsylvania and New Jersey are primarily advisory in nature. Local education agencies have the primary responsibility for establishing educational policies and procedures on the issue. Individuals responsible for policy decisions should be familiar with state and national trends that may directly and/or indirectly affect policy.

Medical evidence at the present time strongly suggests that policies of exclusion would hold up constitutionally under the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment since no *rational* basis for excluding children from public school settings exists unless individual circumstances warrant the exclusion. Additionally, implementation of an exclusionary policy would probably be considered more intrusive than necessary and may be considered an infringement of property and freedom of association rights. As medical knowledge continues to emerge, justification for infringement upon the fundamental rights of the individual may shift. In the school environment the balance must be made between the rights of the individual to participate in school programs weighed against the potential of harm to others in the same environment.

AIDS (and the HIV infection) is a topic of medical, legal, social, economic, and educational speculation and concern. The educational decision-maker must be knowledgeable in communicating well-informed policy in educational issues concerning this topic. The rural educator must have a strong vehicle of communication to translate information to the community setting. A network of resources should be developed and a vehicle in place for

disseminating and implementing new information as it develops.

The following are general recommendations for the educational decision-maker for the development of educational placement policy of HIV-infected children in the public schools.

1. In developing and administering policy, school administrators should establish and maintain open communication with the major policy and rule-makers in the state. Knowledge of existing public agency policies at the national, state and local level supports educational policy that it sound and reasonable. AIDS policy direction may be under the jurisdiction of education officials, public health officials, or both. Interagency collaboration is crucial to efficient, concise, and accurately administered policy recommendations.

2. The National Center for Disease Control (CDC) recommendations on the educational placement of HIV-infected student provide a *guide* when developing eligibility criteria for admission and/or exclusion of HIV-infected students in the public schools. In the school environment the balance must be made between the rights of the individual to participate in school programs weighed against the potential of harm to others in the school environment.

3. Although state laws may differ as to the interpretation on whether the HIV-infected child should be covered by EHA, it is suggested that schools include in determinations of policy information on the responsible agent for education of these children within the schools, be it regular or special education.

4. Statutory and regulatory requirements of the EHA and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act provide guidance for policy and decision-making concerning educational placement issues. The use of EHA procedures for case-by-case determination to provide clarity in decision-making is suggested. However, in utilization of EHA procedures it is advisable to specify whether the use is for convenience or as a basis of eligibility for special education services.

5. Routine precautions should be followed by all school personnel regardless of the presence or absence of an HIV-infected individual. *There is no guarantee that knowledge of the infected child will increase precaution.* An open usage policy where all school personnel are trained in precautionary procedures provides a vehicle for a safe school environment allowing for strict confidentiality to be maintained in an attempt to respect the child's right to privacy, if a HIV-infected student is present in the local public schools or district.

6. Case-by-case review, as recommended in CDC guidelines is suggested to determine if there is anything in the child's neurological, physical or emotional behavior that would make an unrestricted environment inappropriate. Suggested panel review might entail two aspects: (a) determination that the child is well enough to attend school without undue risk to self, and (b) determination that the child's behavior does not pose an increased risk of transmission of the HIV-infection to others in the classroom. Composition of the panel should include representatives of medical, public health and educational agencies within the community. There is no evidence to support that identification of the infected child is necessary for determination of placement status. A procedure should be in place for periodic review.

7. Special education referral is suggested, only after panel review, if there is a determination that the physical condition of the child may have or has had an adverse effect on the child's learning.

8. The number of persons knowledgeable of an infected child's condition should be kept at a minimum with disclosure only to those with a direct need to know. School policies and procedures that argue for disclosure of identity as a precautionary safeguard are not necessarily consistent with medical evidence that suggests routine safety procedures are effective in preventing the transmission of HIV. The decision of whether or not to disclose information regarding the HIV-infected student is most appropriately placed with those responsible for the protection of the HIV-infected child's health (e.g., the parents and the child's physician).

9. Awareness of sound medical evidence to support educational decision-making provides a means of projecting solid grounded policy to the school and community at large. Dependent upon district size, a means of information-gathering should be in place to provide continuous up-dating of both medical and legal issues related to the educational placement of HIV-infected students. A network of resources should be developed for disseminating and implementing new information as it develops.

REFERENCES

Baltimore, D., & Wolff, S.M. (Chairs). (1986). Confronting AIDS: Directions for public health, health care and research (Institute of Medicine/National Academy of Sciences Report). Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Hobbs, N., and Perrin, J.M. (Eds.). (1986). Issues in the care of children with chronic illness. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Phair, J.P., Rapoza, N.P. (1987) . The Challenge of AIDS for physicians today: Information on AIDS for the practicing physician. [Monograph]. American Medical News, 30 (2) (Suppl. 1), 5 - 6

Koop, E. (1986). Surgeon General's report on acquired immune deficiency syndrome. In Journal of American Medical Association. (1986, November, 28), 256 (20), 2783 - 2789

Matthews, G.W., & Neslund, V.S. (1987). The initial impact of AIDS on public health law in the United States - 1986. Journal of the American Medical Association, 257(3), 344 - 352

Weiner, R. (1986). AIDS: Impact on the schools. Arlington, VA: Capitol Publications, Inc.

SCOPE OF INTEREST NOTICE

The ERIC Facility has assigned this document for processing to:

In our judgment, this document is also of interest to the Clearinghouses noted to the right. Indexing should reflect their special points of view.

Rural-Based Mentor/Intern Teacher Project:

Building Bridges Not Walls

Dr. Michael P. Wolfe

Dr. Nicholas Stupiansky

and

Dr. Barbara McConville

State University of New York - Plattsburgh

Presentation at the National Conference of the American Council on Rural Special Education Ft. Lauderdale, Florida

March 9, 1989

The New York State Mentor Teacher-Internship Program

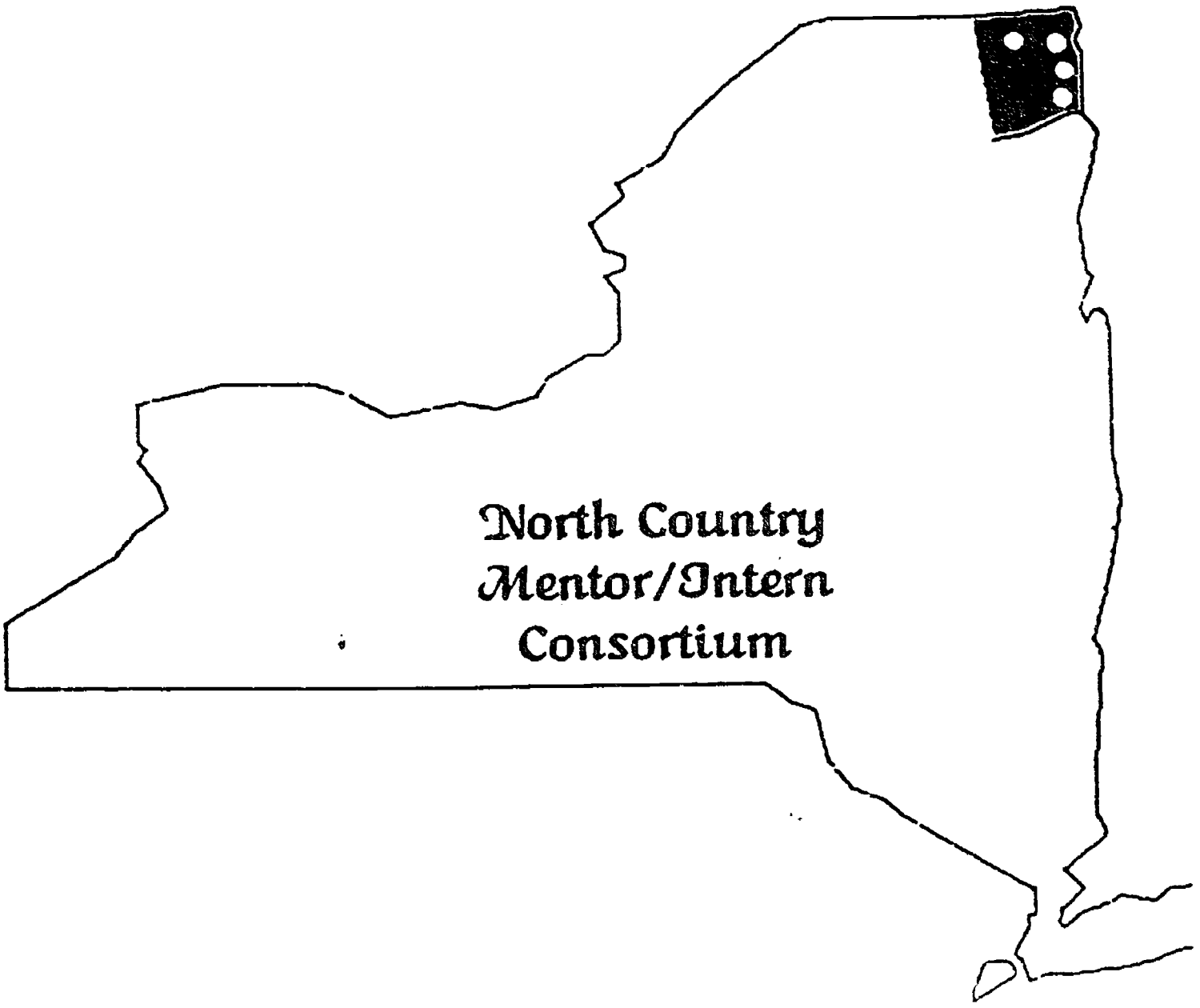
The State Education Department has proposed a regulation that would make an internship a requirement for permanent teacher certification. The SED's proposal is for the regulation to take effect in 1991.

The Plattsburgh Public School District in cooperation with the North Country Teacher Resource Center and the Center for Teacher Education at SUNY-Plattsburgh was one of only 24 intern teacher/mentor training projects funded through a competitive grant process in New York during 1986-87. Because of the success of this collaborative effort, the Center for Teacher Education at SUNY-Plattsburgh and the North Country Teacher Resource Center became partners with Plattsburgh City Schools, Peru School District, Ausable Valley School District, and Saranac School District to create the North Country Mentor/Intern Regional Consortium. These school districts were four of only 29 projects funded for 1987-88.

The purpose of this consortium is to maximize access and utilization of professional resources (human and material) that are available in rural northern New York. Through this consortium arrangement, 11 pairs of mentors and interns are provided training and supervision via the services of SUNY-Plattsburgh faculty. The consortium facilitates regional and local turnkey training activities which address the specific needs of local district mentors and interns. A summer training program for mentors and four regional consortia workshops enable participants from each district to share ideas, resources, and expertise.

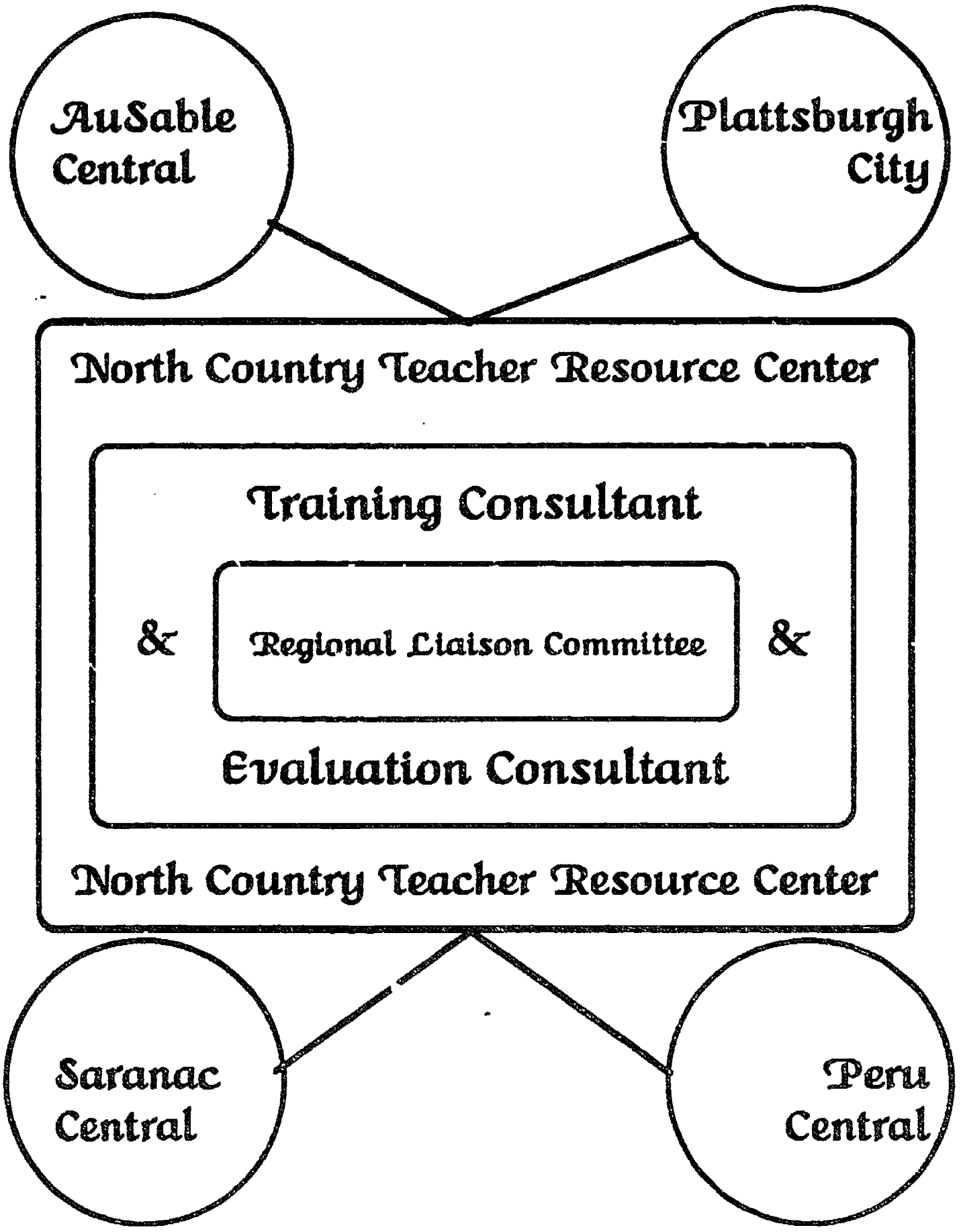
1987-88 Mentor Teacher-Internship Program

North Country Mentor/Intern Consortium



- Ausable Valley School District
- Peru School District
- Plattsburgh City School District
- Saranac School District

Consortium Organizational Chart



Introduction

"86/87 PRELIMINARY CONCLUSIONS SHAPE 87/88 PROGRAM"

Based on the final evaluation report of the Plattsburgh City Schools Mentor/Intern Program for 1986/87, this proposal has been prepared in direct response to recommendations suggested by the following preliminary conclusions:

....relating to need for regional planning and assistance:

1. Professional consultants and training experts are not easily accessible (one 4 year college) in rural northern New York State and those available may be over subscribed if and when additional school districts seek assistance. A regional plan to coordinate and maximize existing resources (human and material) is recommended.
2. Several North Country Schools are seeking help from Plattsburgh with preparing mentor/intern programs for their districts. Requests for continued leadership role by 86/87 Plattsburgh Program participants is anticipated during 87/88.
3. 86/87 mentors and interns have expressed a need and desire to remain active participants in the 87/88 program for the Plattsburgh City Schools and/or the proposed regional consortium.

....relating to program support:

4. Administrative awareness, understanding and active support is essential to a successful program.
5. The Intern's professional assignment needs to be protected. (ie: class size and student profile)
6. Special communications with parents of students in mentor/intern classrooms will foster program understanding and support.
7. A supportive, non-evaluative, environment (from all professional colleagues) is essential to developing meaningful and effective mentor/intern relationships.

....relating to program structure:

8. Program participants are reluctant to leave the classroom. It is recommended that identifying and scheduling replacement teachers is in need of special team (administrator, mentor, intern, replacement teacher) attention.
9. Separate replacement teachers are recommended for mentor and intern that commit to availability throughout program.
10. Mentor/intern 'conference time' for analysis and reflection of performance tasks is an essential component to intern growth and development.
11. Scheduling mentor/intern activities must be reasonable and strike a balance of need for training, observation and conference time with a need for personal time. [In an effort to avoid duplication of information and time, it is recommended that one Journal be maintained by each mentor/intern pair relative to conferences and mutual activities. Separate entries should be made only at appropriate times. It was further recommended that the College Consultant maintain a JOURNAL of conferences conducted with 'pairs' as well as notation of all other program activities that involved the consultant.]

....relating to training:

12. Mentors ability to develop meaningful relationships with interns increases with knowledge and understanding of intern needs. Preliminary mentor training is recommended to address research findings associated with needs of beginning teachers.
13. Counseling skills training for mentors is important to mentor effectiveness.
14. District (routines, policies, etc.) orientation for interns should be immediate and thorough as their comfort level improves with knowledge level.
15. Interns, and in some cases mentors, must enroll in college classes in order to meet degree requirements. This additional load may over burden program participants. Consideration of credit bearing mentor/intern training sessions is recommended.
16. 'Planning for the replacement teacher' is a training area that needs to be expanded and delivered during initial training sessions.
17. Training replacement teachers in areas unique to the mentor/intern program is considered essential to

achieving classroom quality during absences.

18. Professional training (effective teaching research, organizational and societal expectations, etc.) is considered to be of significant value to both intern and mentor.

87/88 Program Goal

The primary goal of the MENTOR/INTERN PROGRAM is to improve the quality of teaching by intern teachers. The overall goal is to work cooperatively with school districts within the Mentor/Intern Consortium, the North Country Teacher Resource Center and State University College, Plattsburgh, to improve educational services.

87/88 Program Objectives

The MENTOR/INTERN PROGRAM will:

1. provide a support structure in which the mentor/intern relationship can be effectively developed.
2. provide technical assistance, training and counseling that addresses a range of personal and professional tasks as identified by a beginning teacher.

The INTERN, as a result of program participation, will:

1. assume and express positive attitudes relative to teaching and the profession
2. improve teaching performance during the induction year
3. utilize human and material educational resources available from school district, community and other educational agencies
4. contribute to improving professional retention level of 1st year teachers

The MENTOR, as a result of program participation, will:

1. deliver mentoring services that demonstrate:
   A. an accessible and supportive environment for sharing and addressing intern concerns and needs
   B. listening and feedback skills
   C. effective teaching behaviors
   D. leadership, management and counseling skills associated with mentor responsibilities
   E. ability to assist with facilitating District expectations relative to curriculum development and other routine procedures
2. demonstrate increased professional knowledge, performance and commitment

The ASSOCIATE (Plattsburgh Mentor/Intern participants in 86/87 Program)will:

1. improve regional Mentor/Intern Programs via active participation in North Country Consortium activities
2. facilitate communication among regional mentors and interns.
3. increase professional knowledge, performance and commitment

North Country Consortium

A North Country Mentor/Intern Regional Consortium is proposed for 1987/1988 under the sponsorship of NCTRC (North Country Teacher Resource Center). The purpose of this consortium is to maximize access and utilization of professional resources (human and material) that are available in rural northerNew York. The 86/87 Plattsburgh Mentor/Intern Model has been freely shared with districts expressing interest in consortium participation.

NCTRC will provide a structure for scheduling orientation activities, training sessions that address collective needs, strategy sessions for implementing local activities, and evaluation meetings. The consortium will also facilitate local training programs and provide assistance for meeting district needs of the mentor/intern program. A full description of this activity has been included with this narrative.

86/87 Plattsburgh program participants (i.e mentors and interns) will contribute to consortium activities. Their experiences will be shared in orientation and training sessions.

North Country Mentor/Intern Consortium

Objectives

The primary objectives of the regional consortium are to:

1. identify and strengthen the successful components of the Mentor/Intern Model developed by the Plattsburgh City Schools during 1986/1987 and apply to other North Country districts
2. maximize utilization of professional resources available in the the North Country
3. improve opportunities for increased professional growth and development via cooperation and sharing
4. develop a regional decision-making organization to determine common needs of mentor/intern projects

Roles

Regional Liaison Committee will:

1. determine policy, procedures and staffing (consultants) for the Regional Mentor/Intern Consortium.
2. select a committee member to serve as chairperson.
3. schedule regular meetings to review progress and plan future activities of the consortium.
4. receive all final consortium reports prior to submission to the State Department of Education.

District Liaison Reps will:

1. meet with the Regional Liaison Committee to identify collective needs and plan consortium activities that address these needs.
2. be the link between consortium and local programming.

Training Consultants will:

1. meet regularly with the Regional Liaison Committee.
2. plan training sessions that address topics identified:
   - 2.1. from research findings relative to induction programs and needs of beginning teachers.
   - 2.2. from the analysis of the 86/87 Plattsburgh mentor/intern program.
   - 2.3. from an on-going review of the 87/88 mentor/intern activities by local steering committees and consortium liaison committee.
3. plan need-based training sessions for
   - 3.1. mentors.
   - 3.2. interns.
   - 3.3. training consultants hired by districts to do program coordination at local level.
4. arrange consultant visitations to districts when appropriate.

Evaluation Consultant will:

1. design a comprehensive evaluation plan for the 87/88 Mentor/Intern Program.
2. include activities and measures considered effective and meaningful during 86/87.
3. conduct training activities necessary to effective implementation of evaluation, documentation and/or report activities. Evaluation process, schedules, materials and implementation guidelines will be reviewed during training.
4. provide on-going response to individual mentor and intern needs, to district needs, and to the collective needs of all districts.
5. make visitations to selected districts.

NCTRC (North Country Teacher Resource Center) will:

1. meet with district liaison representatives during planning sessions for regional activities.
2. arrange location and other support services required to implement all consortium activities. (ie, training sessions, evaluation meetings, etc).
3. prepare and disseminate communication relative to consortium activities.
4. provide assistance with material preparations for all consortium meetings.
5. provide mentors and interns with information and/or resources relevant to addressing professional needs

District (Superintendent and Steering Committee) will:

1. coordinate the Mentor/Intern Induction Program at the local level.
2. conduct, arrange, sponsor or otherwise be responsible for facilitating all aspects of the program management section of the proposal.
3. be responsive and attentive to unanticipated needs throughout program delivery.
4. participate in and contribute to regional consortium activities that are designed to strengthen and enrich district program objectives.

Program Implementation Overview

The following chart illustrates an overview of the principal facilitators in implementation of Mentor/Intern Programs within the North Country Consortium.

PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION AREA	FACILITATOR			
	District	Consortium	Training Consultant	Evaluation Consultant
1. Mentor Eligibility List	X			
2. Summer Mentor Institute		X	X	X
3. Intern Selection	X			
4. Intern/ Mentor Matches	X			
5. Needs Assessment	X	X	X	X
6. District Orientation	X			
7. Initial Meetings of Mentor & Intern	X			
8. Program Orientation		X	X	X
9. Train the Trainers Workshops		X	X	X
10. Turnkey Training for Mentors/Interns	X			
11. Mentor/Intern 'Workplan Activities'	X			
12. Fall & Spring Quality Circle Meetings		X	X	X
13. District Reports and Evaluation	X			X
14. Regional Reports and Evaluation		X		X

PROGRAM DELIVERY

(Needs Assessment and Training)

Intern Teachers are provided with support, guidance, and needed leadership as they begin their careers. This unique training and support is expected to improve the performance of beginning teachers and encourage the retention of competent persons in teaching careers. It also is expected to enhance and energize the careers of veteran mentor teachers.

The mentor/intern training activities are identified from research findings relative to induction programs and needs of beginning teachers. The primary focus of the training is to equip the mentor with a repertoire of knowledge, skills, and attitudes appropriate for meeting the expressed needs of the intern. In order to build this repertoire, a variety of needs assessment devices are used for pinpointing specific areas of mentor/intern concerns and needs on a continuing basis.

Both formal and informal means were devised to assess the intern and mentor needs. Formal instruments were utilized at the beginning of the program. These included the following:

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator - analyze operational styles (M/I)
Teacher Stress Inventory - identify personal and professional stressors (M/I)
Effective Teaching Instrument - assess teaching knowledge and skills (M/I)
Beginning Teacher Needs Assessment Inventory - clarify areas of need or concern (I)
Mentor Teacher Needs Assessment Inventory - clarify areas of need or concern (M)
Counseling Assessment - identify counseling skills and styles (M)
Training Session Assessments - monthly input on needs (M/I)

Informal techniques included ongoing mentor/intern conferences, seminar discussions, self-evaluations, peer coaching, videotape feedback, professional dialogues, and information provided by Steering Committee members and principals. Based on the information obtained from the initial and ongoing needs assessments and the related literature on the documented needs of beginning teachers, intern and mentor needs were identified and were incorporated into a Mentor/Intern Action Plan for use by mentors and interns to cooperatively identify intern needs and ways to address these needs. This Plan provided a continuous process for monitoring and evaluating the intern's growth. Also, as new needs were expressed, the plan was modified and activities were planned and developed to address these needs. Given the results of the needs assessment process, training activities at the consortium, district, and individual mentor/intern team levels were planned.

The training activities are derived specifically through the ongoing analysis of the paper/pencil and person-to-person needs assessments. Thus, activities scheduled during monthly training sessions, either within a school district or during a consortium meeting, are designed as need-based activities.

Training Activities

Group Building/Dyadic Encounters
Effective Teaching Skills
Replacement Teacher Training
Counseling Skills
Peer Coaching
Interactive Supervision
Teaching/Learning Styles
Adult Learning Concepts
Classroom Management and Discipline
Analysis of Teaching
Curriculum Development and Teaching Methods
Other Additional Training as Needed

ERIC

Needs Assessment

- Formal Instruments
  - Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (M/I)
  - Stress Profile for Teachers (M/I)
  - Beginning Teacher Needs Assessment Inventory (I)
  - Mentor Teacher Needs Assessment Inventory (M)
  - Effective Teaching Assessment (M/I)
  - Counseling/Communication Skills Assessment (M)
  - Training Session Assessments (M/I)

- Informal
  - Focused Interviews (M/I)
  - Self-reports and Discussion (M/I)

- Development of Mentor/Intern Action Plan

Training

3 Dimensions:

- Technical/Information Assistance
- Personal Support Structure
- Cognitive/Analytical Dimension

Training Components:

- Summer Mentor Institute
- Mentor/Intern Orientation
- Replacement Teacher Orientation
- Regional Consortium Meetings - Mentors, Interns, Administrators
- District "Turnkey" Training Programs - College Linkers
- Mentor/Intern Action Plan

Significant Factors

- Timeline
- Mentor Training
- Intern Orientation
- Replacement Teacher Involvement
- Mentor/Intern Matches
- Confidentiality
- Administrative Involvement
- Released time: Scheduling & Utilization
- Non Evaluative
- Community Relations

Significant Factors

1. TIMELINE
   - Identification of Interns & Mentors
   - SED approval of Program & Budget

2. MENTOR TRAINING
   - Summer Institute
   - Consortium Monthly Sessions

3. INTERN ORIENTATION
   - Beginning of School
   - Matches

4. REPLACEMENT TEACHER
   - Training
   - Commitment / Contract
   - One per Mentor & Intern

5. MENTOR/INTERN MATCHES
   - Confidential
   - Flexible
   - Peer Coaching / Non Evaluative

6. CONFIDENTIALITY
   - Mentor / Intern
   - Trainer/All
   -Evaluator/All

7. ADMINISTRATIVE INVOLVEMENT
   - Scheduling Flexibility
   - Attitude with Staff/Parents, etc.
   -Program Orientation

8. RELEASED TIME
   - Intern & Mentor 20%
   - Pull-Out
   - Synchronous/Asynchronous

9. NON EVALUATIVE
   - Mentor with Intern
   - Administrator with M/I Matches

10. COMMUNITY RELATIONS
    - Program perceptions